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The Week

THE great Coolidge landslide of 1924 now takes its place in history beside the Harding landslide of 1920. It is an equally sensational victory. The President has a hundred votes in the Electoral College beyond the number necessary to win; the fears—or hopes—that the election might be thrown into the House are revealed as thoroughly groundless. Davis, on the basis of incomplete returns as we go to press, has apparently not carried a single state beyond his irreducible minimum in the solid South; La Follette, while his popular vote is about 4,000,000, has succeeded in capturing the electoral vote of only his home state, Wisconsin. New York's extraordinarily popular Democratic governor, Al Smith, has been reëlected over Theodore Roosevelt, Jr., but his remarkable personal triumph has not prevented the state's going for Coolidge by more than three-quarters of a million votes. The Republican strength in the House of Representatives has been increased to a safe majority, and the same result may have taken place in the Senate. The victory of the Conservatives in Great Britain a week earlier was no more sweeping than that which it presaged of the conservatives in America.

THE results of the election are from the point of view of the Progressives most disappointing. They foresaw that Mr. Coolidge would probably be elected but they expected to poll a much larger vote than they have polled, and they hoped to be able to interpret the election as a clear mandate to organize a third party. It is questionable now whether the Progressive vote is large enough and sufficiently well distributed to justify the attempt. There are over 4,000,000 American voters, forming about one-seventh of the total electorate who believe that the economic issue is of enough importance to demand the organization of a new party whose purpose it would be to press the issue on American public opinion. In any other country that would be a sufficiently numerous minority to do the work, but in a country whose national politics is so largely subordinated to the election of a president and to the recruiting of a majority of the voters large enough for that purpose, one-seventh of the electorate, if it set up a candidate of its own, would not count positively in a presidential campaign.

FOR our part we hope the attempt to organize a Progressive party will be made and believe that it should be. But if it is made the new party will have to approach its task in a somewhat different spirit from that in which Mr. La Follette's campaign was managed. The assumption underlying the campaign tactics of Mr. La Follette was that progressive votes hung like ripe apples on a tree, and would fall into Mr. La Follette's lap just as soon as the tree was shaken. As a matter of fact the possible progressive votes fell after the tree was shaken quite as often into Mr. Coolidge's or Mr. Davis's lap as into Mr. La Follette's. The latter's campaign lost rather than gained votes. He was almost certainly stronger in September than he proved to be in November. He lost votes because he over-estimated his own strength and the preparedness of the average American mind, and conducted his campaign on the supposition that he might be elected. His appeal to the voters was too propagandist and not sufficiently patient, informative and educational. A permanent Progressive

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party, if it is to be organized, will have to reverse this policy and begin a long, slow process of convincing industrial and agricultural workers that they will not count in American politics until they assert their own interest and exert their group power by participating in carrying on a farmer-labor party.

THE Ku Klux Klan, which was a factor in several states, was successful, or contributed to Republican success, in Ohio, Indiana and Illinois. In Kansas it helped to defeat William Allen White, gubernatorial candidate on an anti-Klan platform, and in Oklahoma, it won a too-easy victory over "Jack" Walton, the notorious impeached ex-governor of that state. Only in Texas did the Klan suffer a real defeat, having attempted in that state the well-nigh impossible task of beating the winner of the Democratic primaries, "Ma Ferguson." To Mrs. Ferguson probably goes the honor of being the first woman governor, though she may have to share it with Mrs. Nellie T. Ross, Democratic candidate for the same office in Wyoming. As we go to press it is still uncertain whether the latter has won her fight against E. V. Sullivan, the Republican candidate. Two other women may have been elected to important office, Mary T. Norton of New Jersey, and Nellie Cline of Kansas. In the senatorial contests Borah of Idaho won a well-deserved victory. Senator Walsh of Montana, it is hoped, has run sufficiently far ahead of his ticket to be returned to Washington. Iowa, in the face of preëlection prophecies that it would be carried by La Follette, has gone strongly Republican; and even the reëlection of Senator Brookhart is not assured, chiefly because conservative Republicans in that state threw their strength to his Democratic opponent, Daniel Steck.

WHILE careful analysis of the results must wait more complete returns than are available as we go to press, study of the early figures shows no evidence that Republican corruption, revealed in Washington during the past ten months, was anywhere a handicap to Coolidge. The Democratic campaign centred around this issue, and the Democratic party in the North is a wreck. The La Follette vote was in general surprisingly small in the agricultural districts and unexpectedly large in the Eastern industrial centres; but it seems fair to say that it would probably have been almost if not quite as large had the sordid story of Fall, Daugherty and Forbes never been written. Apparently the country either decided that Coolidge is not responsible for what happened during the régime of his predecessor, or—what seems more likely in view of all the facts—forgot the issue of dishonesty in its apprehension over the bogey of Bolshevism which the Republican campaigners raised so unfairly, but so successfully, in connection with the La Follette movement.

THE poor showing of Mr. Davis is sufficient answer to those liberals in the Democratic ranks who charge that the La Follette movement is solely responsible for the overwhelming Coolidge success. La Follette may have drawn some votes from the Democrats in the Northeastern states; but all of these twice over would not have been sufficient to prevent the Republican victory. Whatever chances the Democrats may have had they threw away in their convention last June when they decided upon an equivocal, catch-all platform, and such a candidate as John W. Davis. Mr. Davis is an honorable and likable gentleman; he has made a skilful, persuasive campaign which is perhaps the outstanding personal achievement of the contest; but he has shown throughout that he is, as the New Republic said from the beginning, an instinctive conservative, about as far as possible from the fighting progressive who might have led the party to victory. Eight months ago, nearly all political experts predicted that the Democrats had success within their grasp, if they played their cards intelligently. In the light of the election returns, these predictions may have been too optimistic; but it remains true that the party not merely failed, but refused to take the necessary steps which would have enrolled all the opponents of Coolidge-Butler conservatism under its banner.

THE election campaign is over; and the partisan passions which it engendered will, for the most part, promptly die away. Friends and neighbors who have been shaking their fists in one another's faces, with dire accusations of endeavors to wreck the Constitution or debauch the government, will settle down amicably enough again to the borrowing and lending of snow-shovels and lawn-mowers; and this is probably as it should be. There are a few campaign speakers, however, whose reputation and public position might have been expected to hold them back from wild mis-statements; and whose excesses can therefore neither be forgiven nor forgotten. Charles Evans Hughes, Secretary of State, Harlan F. Stone, Attorney General, and Martin W. Littleton, distinguished New York attorney, are leaders of the American bar. The country has a right to look to them for careful sifting of the evidence, moderation in statement, and scrupulous avoidance at all times of wilful falsehood. The first two individuals both stooped to the public accusation that the La Follette movement meant red revolution and the overthrow of the Constitution; and the third went even further in absurdity and asserted on the basis of cock-and-bull evidence that Communism was the secret heart of the Progressive campaign. How cruelly false are these statements, our readers are well aware. It is hard to believe that distinguished lawyers like Hughes, Stone and Littleton are not equally aware of facts so obvious. Their conduct in this campaign is a stain upon their personal, private honor which they will find it difficult to eradicate.

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ADDITIONAL evidence was furnished on the eve of the election that the integrity of the labor movement demands severance of all relations with the two old parties and unified adherence to an independent party in which it may have a controlling voice. The Central Trades and Labor Council of Greater New York had, by a vote of a full delegate meeting, endorsed La Follette and Wheeler. Four days before the election, when it was too late to call another such meeting, a minority of the Executive Board of the Council issued a statement in support of Davis. This was hailed by the press as a rescinding of the original action and a delivery of the 750,000 union votes in the city to the Democratic candidates. Of course it was no such thing, either in reality, in union law or in moral effect. Statements pointing out the true situation by Samuel Gompers and progressive local labor leaders received scant attention in the papers. When we consider that three of the most important officials of the local Executive Board, who signed the Davis statement, are on the payroll of the Democratic city or state administrations, and that many leaders of the Council have long been under the influence of Tammany, the whole cheap trick becomes obvious.

CITY CENTRAL LABOR councils frequently prove to be soft spots of labor solidarity. Having little or no funds and no economic power, their significance lies largely in publicity and politics. In the absence of any important function and of the active interest of the local unions which are supposed to send delegates to them, they often become the prey of unscrupulous political machines. There are not many large cities in which influential members of these councils are not subsidized in one way or another by the dominant political bosses. The offenders, of course, are not always Democratic; in Philadelphia, for instance, the alliance of the local leaders is with the Republicans. The result encourages corruption both in politics and in labor affairs. Labor would profit immensely if the political consciousness of the rank and file were so awakened that one of the local leaders could retain his prestige if he accepted favors from corrupt politicians, and if the central councils should assume a real function and justify their existence by being the centres of a genuine, independent political movement.

RECOGNITION of the Soviet Republic by France has apparently evoked little criticism even among the reactionaries. The only vociferous protest was made by the Russian émigrés living in Paris, men and women who cannot get over the dream that the Soviet government may at any time disappear and restore the old order. Few Frenchmen—certainly not Herriot—approve of the economic principles of the Soviet Republic, or condone the violence with which it maintains its power. But official recognition of a foreign government does not imply approval of its principles. It implies nothing more than the fact that the government in question appears to be sufficiently solidly established so that it must be taken into account in the ordinary relations of trade and intercourse. The notion that recognition should be bestowed as a reward for right conduct may not be wholly fantastic when it comes to relations between the United States and lesser American states under our national thumb. It is absurd as applied to relations between France and Russia.

WHERE does the act of recognition leave the French claimant against Russia on account of property confiscated or government bonds repudiated? Exactly where he was. The French government has not approved the acts by which he was despoiled. It will spare no effort to induce the Russian government to acknowledge these claims. To be sure, the Russian government is not now in a position to pay them. It is uncertain whether Russia will ever be in a position to pay, exactly as it is uncertain — or rather worse than uncertain — that France will ever be in a position to pay off her war debt to the United States. We take some comfort from the fact that France has not formally repudiated her claims, and perhaps France would take comfort from an empty acknowledgment by Russia of the French claims. France is much more likely to get such an acknowledgment now that she does business with Russia in the normal fashion.

THE Council of the League of Nations received high praise in the pro-League section of the American press last week for its success in dealing with two menacing situations—the dispute between Turkey and Great Britain over the Irak boundary, and the friction between Greece and Turkey because of alleged unfairness of the latter in treatment of Greeks in Constantinople under the arrangement for exchange of populations. The Council has certainly performed a useful service; but the friends of the League in this case seem to give it too much credit, just as the enemies give it too little. In the Irak boundary dispute what has been done has been to set up a temporary frontier, which will be called the Branting line after the distinguished Swedish statesman who headed the League committee which devised it. Great Britain and Turkey have agreed in advance to accept it, and it is expected that hostilities have been averted at least until after the commission on a permanent boundary has made its investigation, decision and report. The League's action shows beyond dispute the enormous value of an international machinery for conciliation and adjudication, but in this case the wheels have as yet hardly begun to turn. As for the Turkish-Greek affair, the Council's action consisted of no more than

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requesting the Mixed Commission which is in charge of the exchange of population to meet forthwith and smooth out the troubles. To this the president of the Mixed Commission replied tartly that it is already on the job. Since the Commission is itself a creature of the League, the latter body must, of course, get the credit for its success, even though the Council's "achievement" of the moment seems a rather hollow one.

ONE aftermath of the campaign we are glad to welcome. The American Defense Society is a body of self-appointed super-patriots which under the leadership of the late R. M. Whitney was always bigoted, unfair and disingenuous, and since his death has added asinine folly to its list of characteristics. It has been circulating a pamphlet purporting to show that some of the leaders of the La Follette movement were Communists seeking revolutionary ends. The silliness of the statements would be incredible to one who did not know the troglodytic mentality of the average patriot-busybody. Since, however, these pamphlets are always circulated among the most credulous and ignorant element in the citizenry, without question serious harm was done some of the persons to whom the Communistic tar brush was thus applied. We are glad to report that five of the individuals thus attacked have started libel suits for $25,000 each against the American Defense Society. We sincerely hope the cases are pushed to a prompt trial and that the labor-baiting Tories who are behind this society and similar organizations will be taught a lesson as to the safe limits within which you may lie about honest American citizens who happen to differ with you politically.

THE last few years have witnessed a sharp decline in the number of lynchings in the United States. Indeed, 1924 seems likely to prove the sanest year in lynching history. From eighty-three lynchings in 1919 we have dropped through a series of sixties to twenty-eight last year and only nine thus far in 1924. The credit for this achievement is claimed by James W. Johnson for the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, of which he is secretary. The Association has been very active in combatting lawlessness with publicity and in pressing for the passage of the Dyer anti-lynching bill which still awaits the action of the House. This is excellent work for which the country and not merely its colored citizens owe the Association a considerable debt. Still, it is doubtful if so conspicuous a change is due to any one cause. Probably the Ku Klux Klan has done as much if not more than Mr. Johnson's Association: it has made lynching unpopular. The persistence of lynching as an institution was possible only so long as it remained respectable. The Klan cheapened it, diverted the awful instrument of inter-racial terrorism to all sorts of trivial and even political ends, and so brought it into universal contempt.

THE suicide of Senator Brandegee, of Connecticut, occurred so near the time of the general election that under a Connecticut state law it was not possible to select his successor on November 4. A special election will be held on December 16, at which time Connecticut liberals will have an opportunity to perform a useful service by voting for Helena Hill Weed, of Norwalk, who is making the race as an independent candidate. A daughter of Congressman Hill, who represented Connecticut in the House for twenty years, she has had a long public career, primarily as a worker for suffrage and as an energetic advocate of numerous reform measures, and secondarily as an aid to her father in his exhaustive studies of tariff, taxation, currency, etc. In the political campaign just closed Mrs. Weed supported La Follette. Ordinarily, an independent woman candidate for the Senate would of course have little chance in Connecticut; but this year the Democrats are still split by the Smith-McAdoo quarrel; and the Republicans are embarrassed by the attitude of their boss, J. H. Roraback, whose vanity has led him, against all the precedents of bossism, to want the place himself. The conflict has given Mrs. Weed, we are glad to report, a good fighting chance for the honor of being the first member of her sex actually to serve in the Senate.

THE American Civil Liberties Union is preparing to carry its defense of the rights of free speech and assembly into the universities. The case of the university students who find themselves hampered in their desire to listen to the spokesmen of unpopular opinions by the refusal of the academic authorities to permit the use of college halls is quite different from that of striking workers or of "criminal" syndicalists. The administrator who refuses the courtesy of a hall to a college liberal club is well within his legal rights. No question of "constitutional" prerogative is involved. Furthermore, the most powerful alumni are always best pleased by the most paternalistic president. The only function which the Union can possible perform is that of publicity. But this alone would justify its action. Every one knows about President Atwood's interruption of the Nearing lecture at Clark University, and of the pressure that was brought to bear on President Hopkins of Dartmouth to forbid the appearance of W. Z. Foster. But for every case that receives such publicity there are many others which lack the spectacular features of these affairs and are consequently overlooked. In such cases there has been, heretofore, no court of appeal whatever. If the committee on academic freedom of the Union can give systematic airing to the benevolent

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tyranny exercised on a small scale, quietly, throughout the academic world, it will make a unique contribution to American education.

THE Church League for Industrial Democracy, an organization of members of the Episcopal Church, which seeks "to promote coöperation and justice in industrial relations," has undertaken to investigate a strike of the Associated Silk Workers which has been going on for more than two months in Paterson, New Jersey. The strike is a local one in an industry of much smaller extent than the steel industry. No such problem will therefore be presented as confronted the Interchurch World Movement in its famous investigation of the steel strike of 1919. Nevertheless this clash has many points of interest. The workers have been intimidated in various characteristic ways. The mayor has threatened deportation of unnaturalized Italian strikers. The chief of police has ordered "no more communistic speeches." Upon the advice of the American Civil Liberties Union these threats have been ignored. No deportations have occurred and organization meetings are now permitted. But no abatement of hostility is in sight. In short, it is an excellent field for investigation by the Episcopalian body.

THE séances of the medium, "Margery," have run true to form as psychic manifestations. The faithful have remained faithful and the doubters sceptical with the issue still in doubt. Dr. Carrington, an "investigator" of the most confirmed credulity, is satisfied that in spite of the detection of gross fraud in certain cases the medium has nevertheless made wonderful revelations of supernatural power. Houdini, the famous professional magician, has exposed fraud repeatedly and suspects it always. Dr. Prince of the Society for Psychical Research finds the evidence inconclusive but reserves judgment. In the end, therefore, the investigation sponsored by the Scientific American Magazine has resulted in nothing but the necessity for further research. The $5000 award, offered by the Scientific American for clear proof of psychic power, remains intact; but so also does the faith of the true believers. Indeed, it is very doubtful if this deadlock can ever be broken.

Coolidge Conservatism Triumphant

THE results of the election constitute a great personal triumph for Mr. Coolidge. Since he succeeded to the Presidency more than a year ago he has had to deal with a huge array of apparently unmanageable obstacles to the Republican success in the election of this fall. Never was a national party in the control of the government of a democratic nation to all appearances so utterly disorganized by just criticism, by its own admitted mistakes and faults and by internal dissensions as was the Republican party during the early months of 1924. Yet in spite of these terrific handicaps President Coolidge has managed to capture almost as many electoral votes as Mr. Harding did four years ago, and his preponderance in the popular vote indicates that he possesses the confidence of a substantial majority of the American people. The division among his opponents contributed, of course, substantially to the result, but this particular cause is far from wholly explaining it. Millions of his fellow citizens voted for him under the impression that he was a courageous, quiet, steady, plain, upright, God-fearing man who was trustworthy in every respect and who would conduct his country safely and prosperously in the direction of its appointed goal. It is he who for the moment commands the confidence of the American people rather than his party, and this fact bestows on him an opportunity of leadership analogous to that of Theodore Roosevelt after his triumphant election in 1904.

Obviously, however, Mr. Coolidge's victory is not exclusively personal. He has frankly and consistently spoken and acted as the representative of a certain group of ideas, loyalty to which he considers to be essential to the welfare of his country. The institutions and practices of the American political and economic system are from his point of view not merely as unobjectionable as any which faulty human beings can devise in a very unmanageable world but ideally satisfactory. The great object of American domestic policy, as he sees it, should be the stimulation of business along the lines which it naturally takes and the utmost increase and extension of business profits. He believes devoutly and imperturbably in government by and for the business man, and he has advertised this belief on every possible occasion as the major article in his creed. By voting for him in such large numbers his fellow countrymen have for the time being clearly endorsed his high opinion of their existing government. We may expect during the next four years to see a systematic attempt on the part of the administration to do away with the obstacles which have gradually been invented to impede the operation of a business man's state.

The appearance in the field of a Progressive candidate who challenged the domination of American society and government by private business has undoubtedly had the effect at least temporarily of increasing the loyalty of the majority of American people to things as they are. The Coolidge-Republican tactics of trying to scare the voters into a blind and blanket endorsement of the ways and interests of conservative Republicans have been brilliantly successful. It is only a small minority of the American people who are at present willing to incur the risk which any serious tampering with government by and for business would necessarily involve. It remains to be seen whether that minority will in-

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crease or after the fashion of so many minorities in America will feel exposed and lonely and fade away.

Mrs. Grundy's Taxes

THE uproar in clubs, in business offices and newspapers, caused by the publication of income tax figures, turns a singularly brilliant light on the narrow country of the mind occupied by the small but powerful classes subject to such taxation. Publicity of taxes, we hear, is a meddlesome interference with private affairs. It furnishes deplorable opportunities to the snooping woman, to the business rival, to the deceived partner or employe. It stirs up unwholesome class envy. These observations are apparently the only ones which have occurred to those who are objecting.

Such reflections will not stir the large preponderance of income receivers whose earnings are so low that they are wholly exempt from the tax. Nobody knows exactly how many of these there are, but they certainly comprise not less than eighty percent of the total, and probably are closer to ninety. The imperturbability of the great majority of citizens will arise, moreover, not merely from the fact that in most cases clues to their incomes are not being published. It will also arise from the fact that, even in the cases of many who do pay taxes, their incomes are already known and are often publicly discussed. This majority take such publicity as a matter of course; they cannot engage with any energy in the business game of bluff, the middle-class game of outshining one's neighbor, or the rich man's game of cheating the government.

First in line of this army are the employes of cities, counties, states and nation—the laborers, street-sweepers, firemen, policemen, clerks, stenographers, mail-carriers, bookkeepers, teachers, librarians, scientists, accountants—all those whose salaries are fixed by public authority and printed in official reports, the worth of whose work is a regular subject of debate, who must usually make heroic efforts to exhibit the inadequacy of their incomes in order to secure tardy increases. Next march the serried divisions of the employes of private industry who receive their recompense in wages. The income of each is or may be known to his employer. The hourly or weekly rates paid, even though not the actual yearly incomes, are published in official documents, are frequently determined by collective agreements or arbitration boards, are discussed in speeches, articles, editorials. Last of all march the multitude of farmers who, though their rewards are neither publicly fixed nor standardized, still cannot count much on secrecy when the yields and prices of their crops are so obvious. And the farmers are not engaged in the bluffing of commercial competition or the race for social preferment.

Most of these millions have been trained by their experience to believe that there is no sacrosanct privacy about income, but rather that what a man receives for what he does is a matter of some public concern. They move in a society where it is so difficult to make one's associates think that one is either richer or poorer than one is that simplicity of manners results and anyone who raises false pretensions is subject to ridicule if not to suspicion. It may come with something of a shock to them that the leaders of business, the possessors of fortunes and their retainers, generally seem to conceive themselves as gamblers, pirates or play-actors whose winnings have so little relation to service, or are so dependent on deceit, that they regard publicity as an invasion of private rights and opportunities. Of course, such an unfortunate impression would libel the actual state of mind of the objectors. These are unconscious of any inconsistency when they complain bitterly of the twelve dollars a day paid to the bricklayer but are unwilling to display their own gains for public appraisal. They have little individual moral responsibility for the folkways of business and competitive society which, they believe, force them to depend on concealment. Yet they have unwittingly revealed the monumental complacency of a privileged class.

Concerning the practical effect of the publicity more serious discussion is possible. It is said that business men are induced to reveal their affairs to the government on account of the pledge of privacy, but that if they knew their returns were to be made public they would conceal their true incomes. Yet in view of the scandalous amount of illegal evasion and legal avoidance of taxes which obviously has occurred under the system of privacy, it is at least open to question whether the cleansing light of publicity would not bring better results in the long run. The people might be aroused to stop the leaks made possible by the existing law. And, under public scrutiny, many business men would have as strong reasons to report their incomes in full as to shave them to the minimum.

There is certainly everything to be said for the publicity of business earnings when prices or wages are under discussion. It is seldom that effective secrecy concerning finances can now be maintained to the disadvantage of banks, creditors, or competitors, and the larger corporations have voluntarily abandoned complete privacy in these matters. In the case of the smaller concerns, the public and employes are usually the only ones kept in real ignorance. Trade unions have often urged that just as their recompense is known and measured against their needs, so should the facts about the finances of their employers be laid on the table in wage negotiations. This would facilitate the granting of reasonable demands, but it would also check unreasonable ones. The national economy would only gain by complete knowledge and scientific analysis of business finance, just as it does with such treatment of other elements in the economic process.

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If present business practices will not stand the light and cannot be successfully defended, they are rotten and will some day collapse of their own weight.

The chief criticism to be made of the tax publicity is that it is not complete enough. Little, after all, can be learned concerning the evasions or the incomes received merely from records of the taxes paid. Full publicity of the returns themselves is the only logical procedure. The government now has gone far enough to cause irritation to the taxpayer and the public, but not far enough to reap the substantial benefits of candor.

Educational Theory and the Class Room Teacher

IN the supplement which accompanies this issue of the New Republic we have attempted to present to our readers a discussion of some of the most important problems that confront the American public school. The purpose of this supplement is not to set forth a program nor even to marshal the arguments for any special point of view in educational theory. Our contributors are by no means in complete agreement: that, indeed, would be undesirable. Yet they begin their various essays with a common recognition of a general condition the recognition of which is inescapable at the present time, the condition of change. Whatever any one may think of our educational practices, past, present or future, no one can deny that they are undergoing alteration. More than that, among the welter of educational theories characteristic of a period of rapid evolution another general tendency is manifest. It also is recognized by practically all writers upon educational problems at the present time. Throughout our common schools there is an unmistakable drift away from formalism. The routine of school life, accentuated by the unprecedented growth of the entire public school system until it had begun to appear an end in itself, has at length become insupportable.

Typical of the conflict between theory and practice is the experience of a graduate of one of our best known institutions for training teachers who had just commenced teaching. It happened that she had had a private education prior to attending the school for teachers; she was ignorant of the actual practice of school instruction and administration. At this time she was in a state of discouraged perplexity and amazement. In her candid innocence, she had assumed that the theories and principles into which she had been inducted were the guiding principles of school work. Had they not been taught in substance by the wise of all ages, and were they not urged, and in detail as well as in substance, by the pedagogical authorities of the present? Not having the background which enables the average teacher to discount educational theories by knowledge of actual school practices, and to interpret them as uttered in a Pickwickian rather than a literal sense, the zeal and sincerity which she brought to the application of these theories in the school room received a great shock.

The experience is but one illustration of the old, old fact. In social matters, theory is theory and practice is practice, and rarely shall the twain meet. The first is governed by thought, and perhaps in a way which gives confirmation to the contention of some "behaviorists" that thinking and speech are identical—with a minimum of test in action; the second is governed by habit, custom, routine, modified by necessary accommodations to immediate conditions, with a minimum of thinking that goes beyond the range of present circumstances.

What are the causes of the split between principles and facts, theory and practice, in education? One of them is the human and personal separation between theorists and practitioners. Most discussions concerning the relations between theory and practice are vitiated by neglect of this human factor. The real problem concerns the separation between two kinds of practitioners, one practising theorizing and the other practising details of executive work.

Theorizing is not used here in a disparaging sense: it is meant to include investigation into matters of fact as well as reflection upon the data which inquiry reveals. But in its very best sense, as matters are now constituted, educational research and reflection constitute an occupation which is remote from the occupation of teaching school.

Conditions in the latter occupation create and widen the breach. They are such that it is hard for the teacher to be anything but a teacher, and especially hard to be a student. This does not mean that teachers are in general not students; considering the amount of time at their disposal, they are, the best of them, quite devoted to increasing their knowledge of what they teach. But the conditions under which they teach are unfavorable to their being students of educational principles and of the application of these in their teaching. They are almost compelled to take educational principles as true in general but not applicable in practice, and to render them only lip service.

Many new and young teachers come to their work with enthusiasm for ideas; they, at least, are going to be different; they are going to apply what they have learned regarding children and education. How many older teachers talk to them in kindness rather than in cynicism to the following effect: "We too were like you when we began; we made things uncomfortable for others and in the end only for ourselves. Don't try to change things, if you are wise. Adapt yourself to existing conditions and make the best of them." And when the young teacher finds that his zeal for ideas comes to little,

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not so much because of overt opposition as because of delays, lack of materials, inertia, red-tape and routine, he usually ends by joining the ranks of those who pass on similar advice to the next generation of the zealous.

By the nature of the case the system is traditional, and it is of the nature of the traditional system to resist change; to perpetuate itself intact. Otherwise it would not be the traditional system. And a scheme of indifference, of yielding in details, and protective colorations of language and outward forms, has been found by long experience to be much more effective in self-perpetuation than is active antagonism to change. Fire is best extinguished by smothering; other methods let in air, and fan the flames. Energy is soon diverted to lines of least resistance. Schools are in many respects more open to change than most human institutions. Every two or three years there is a wave of something new which sweeps across the country, from methods of teaching penmanship, spelling and percentage to addition of new studies to the curriculum. Teachers are honestly perplexed when accused of over-conservatism; many of them know that things are already changing altogether too rapidly for them to do their best. But most of this change is in effect simply a direction of energy into channels where it will keep "reformers" busy on side-tracks. The forms of academic bookkeeping are altered while the substance of the business goes on unchanged. They relieve the conscience of conscientious teachers by giving them something to do which is novel and to which great expectations may be attached. Some of the most touted of present reforms are hardly more than devices for reconciling educators to the absence of thought by giving them new things to do.

A survey of educational literature, including contributions to educational conferences and conventions, will reveal that the contributions of the class-room teacher are insignificant, and in the case of primary education, virtually negligible. This fact is a register of the existing separation of educational ideas and educational practice. When the situation changes, there is a sure means of detecting the alteration. *Teachers in class-rooms out of the experience of the class-rooms will write the bulk of educational contributions.* Then we shall have a condition like that in the natural sciences where workers in laboratories as a matter of course furnish the bulk of scientific literature. But as long as the thinking is done at arm's length from actual teaching, the results of the thinking handed over ready-made to the teacher, the latter will not by the very nature of the case be engaged in thinking, and consequently the thought itself, the ideas, will largely evaporate in the process of so-called application. Reforms in theories taught to teachers and in administration and organization of schools will remain remote and ineffectual for the most part, or simply mark new styles in vocabulary, until class-room teachers are freed, and all thereby given a chance to become the authors and not simply the executors of educational ideas and principles. For that reason we look with growing scepticism on all plans of educational improvement which do not centre in the liberation of the teacher in the place where teaching is carried on: the class-room.

The British Elections

THE only surprise in the British elections was the exaggeration of tendencies whose operation had been visible to every one. Hardly any one had doubted that the Conservatives would win a clear majority in the House of Commons, but a majority of over 200 members exceeds all reasonable expectations. Even the more sanguine Liberals had expected their party to lose ground, but a shrinkage to one-fifth of the popular vote and a negligible fragment in Parliament was a staggering surprise. Labor had counted on profiting from the failure of the Liberals to hold their ranks. The million and a half gained by Labor in the popular vote must have included many Liberals of the Left. But Labor could hardly have foreseen the drastic reduction in its own Parliamentary representation. The more sanguine Labor men had hoped to come so near the Conservative strength as to build themselves up to power in the by-elections of the next two years. They have been disappointed. Nothing but a return of the Black Death could whittle down such a huge majority as the Conservatives have. In all human probability they will hold office until the Parliament just elected has completed its full term.

Now that the extent of the Conservative victory has been measured, what are we to think of the strategy of MacDonald in forcing the battle? For there can be no question that he did force it. The Liberals did not want to fight. More than any one else, they saw clearly what was coming. MacDonald did not need to let himself be unhorsed by a silly little incident like the proposed inquiry into the dropping of the case against a Communist editor. True, the Russian treaty loomed as an inevitable occasion for Liberal defection, but MacDonald need not have negotiated a treaty wholly unacceptable to the Liberals. If he had treated the Liberals as co-partners in the government he could have put through some legislation on which both Labor and the Liberals agreed. It is conceivable that with Liberal coöperation he might have made as good a showing in domestic legislation as he had made in foreign policy. And those students of politics who do not care how a thing is done nor by whom so long as it is a good thing, are very bitter just now in their criticism of MacDonald's rashness and obstinacy.

To this criticism we can not subscribe. We do not ignore the value of the ameliorations that might

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have been brought about by Labor-Liberal coöperation. The unemployment acts would have been administered more generously; education would have been supported more liberally; real progress might have been made toward housing reform. Besides, certain economic measures looking in the direction of imperialism which the Conservatives are likely to put through would have been circumvented. These are important considerations. But we have to weigh against them the effect of a policy of compromise upon the position of the Labor party and its organic cohesion.

It is á common notion that Labor and the Conservatives are the two extremes, while the Liberals occupy the middle ground. If this notion were valid, no objection could be brought against the continuous coöperation of either extreme with the middle party. As we see it, however, the Conservatives and the Liberals stand on the common ground of the existing economic order. They differ in their views of the best methods for conserving and developing this order. The Conservatives rely more on force, the Liberals more on persuasion. The Conservatives are more inclined to resist new social forces at the inception, the Liberals to work them into the prevailing scheme of things. Besides the two parties differ in the importance they assign to the several interests that make up the capitalistic system. Both are, however, essentially and incorrigibly capitalistic. The Labor party on the other hand presses forward to political recognition the claims of a class which has never yet had a fair share in government. It seeks to realize a new social order, in which private capital, if it has any place, must be woven into the general social system. Labor cannot consistently coöperate with either of the other parties. It could form a permanent alliance with either only at the cost of repudiating its essential principles.

MacDonald has been charged with a bitter hatred of the Liberals. We do not know whether the charge is valid or not. What is clear to us, however, is that the Liberals may properly be regarded as more redoubtable foes of the Labor party, as a party, than the Conservatives. All those fuzzy minded persons who assume that when there are three parties two must be the extremes and the third midway between are delivered by the Liberal party from the necessity of making a choice between the old social order and the new. As a clear-sighted strategist MacDonald must have regarded the Liberal party as an obstruction to any progress toward closing battle on the real issues. Whatever his personal feelings toward the Liberal leaders may have been, MacDonald must have desired above all things the destruction of the Liberal party. Of this the Liberals must have been fully aware. Accordingly continued coöperation between the two parties would have rested upon the most disloyal of foundations. Each would have been on the watch for the occasion for a rupture that would have been most disadvantageous for the other party.

In the recent elections Labor suffered heavy losses in Parliamentary representation, but the Liberals suffered far more heavily. It is conceivable that if MacDonald had been more patient he might have picked an occasion less costly to Labor and even more disastrous to the Liberals. He had his own following, however, to consider. How many of them would have realized that he was playing a waiting game, not compromising away his principles for the sake of holding office? Seats in Parliament are important to Labor, but the loyalty and enthusiasm of the rank and file are far more important. And there were many signs that the policy of compromise was producing restlessness and discontent among the trade unions, the most important part of Labor's forces.

The Liberal party, though badly shattered, is not dead. It still controls the allegiance of one-fifth of the British electors. The Conservatives may well conduct the government in such a fashion as to produce a Liberal revival in the next five years. But the days of the party appear to be numbered. The Labor party, under whatever leadership, will inevitably strike the Liberals whenever it gets a chance and the Conservative party will be no more merciful. In the circumstances the Liberal party may be expected to disintegrate, the Right joining the Conservatives, while the Left is absorbed by Labor.

The Liberal tradition in England is an honorable one, and few students of history will witness the demise of the party without regret. But Liberalism is not essentially a party principle. It implies a method, an approach to political problems, irrespective of ultimate objectives. The true liberal is distinguished by serene reasonableness, respect for the facts. If in distributing themselves between the Conservatives and Labor the Liberals retain the liberal point of view, they will be in a position to perform a great service for the nation. They will not reason the conflict of interest out of existence, but they will help to abate the bitterness of the struggle and to reduce to a minimum the waste of human energy that attends it.

THE NEW REPUBLIC

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Compulsory Confessions

RECENT plans for limiting the powers of the United States Supreme Court face the vigorous objection that the Court's ability to insure protection to personal liberty as guaranteed by the Constitution would be seriously curtailed. In reply, attention is called to the rarity of decisions upholding personal liberty in comparison with those guarding property. This may be due to the relative infrequency of appeals to the Court for enforcement of the guarantees of personal liberty rather than to any superior regard for property rights, although the whittling away of freedom of speech in the Espionage Act cases is not reassuring. At all events, a refreshing attitude is displayed by the opinion in Ziang Sung Wan v. United States, reprinted elsewhere in this issue,* in which the unanimous Court, speaking through Mr. Justice Brandeis, protected a lone Chinaman against the District of Columbia police.

Apart from the questions of law involved, the opinion is valuable for the powerful light which it casts upon the working of the so-called "third degree." (The "first degree" is the arrest, the "second degree" the taking of the prisoner to a place of confinement.) The charge that the police in our cities extort information from persons accused of crime by protracted questioning combined with deprivation of food and sleep is frequently made, but the truth is naturally hard to discover. The few prisoners who venture to report the practice are accused of gross exaggeration and too often lack a reputation for veracity. The officials concerned are silent, or minimize and defend the process.

Thus, at the 1910 meeting of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, Chief Corriston, of Minneapolis, said:

> The "third degree" as understood by the public, is a very different thing from the "third degree" as known by a police official . . . This body of men should by every means in their power refute the sensational idea the public has of the so-called "third degree" . . . In making an investigation as to who is responsible for committing an offence, it is often necessary to have several talks with the persons suspected, and their statements as to their whereabouts and conduct at the time in question are important links in unravelling a mystery. These investigations by the police have no doubt cleared the record of many an innocent suspect. The object is to ascertain the truth, not, as the public seems to think, fasten the commission of a crime upon someone—whether guilty or innocent.

And Major Sylvester, of Washington, President of the Association, said:

> Volunteer confessions and admissions made after a prisoner has been cautioned that what he states may be used against him, are all that there is to the so-called "third degree."

Fortunately, we are not altogether without reliable information on the details of the practice. A paper on Methods of Obtaining Confessions and Information from Persons Accused of Crime, presented by B. O. Chisolm and H. H. Hart to the American Prison Association and published by the Russell Sage Foundation in March, 1922, summarizes the answers to questionnaires sent to prosecuting attorneys and chiefs of police in the larger cities of the United States. We also have a few accounts of the process by judges, but none has approached Judge Brandeis's opinion in fullness of detail. The extreme methods he describes may be exceptional and contrary to the custom in most cities, but it is disturbing to find them used, not in a remote frontier town, but in the capital of the nation.

This brings us to the legal problem,—should the courts endeavor to check this method of investigation into crime where no actual violence is used, by excluding confessions thus obtained from the evidence submitted by the prosecution against the prisoner? That this question is not always answered by reputable and thoughtful men in the affirmative, is shown by the fact that the Chinaman's confession in the case under discussion was admitted by both the trial court and the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia, and by the well considered opinion of John H. Wigmore (Treatise on Evidence, 2 ed., §851), that "The attempts, legislative and judicial, to exclude confessions obtained by police questioning of persons arrested and in seclusion represent simply a misguided solution of the problem."

The contrary opinion of the Ziang Sung Wan case, that such confessions should be excluded, does not rest upon any clause of the Constitution, but upon a well-established principle of the common law, originating in England where there is no written constitution, that confessions secured by improper methods must not be used as evidence against a person on trial for crime. The test of this impropriety is commonly phrased as the extraction of the confession by threats of harm or by promises of benefit, such as a pardon or light sentence. This test may fairly be criticized as wooden, and it is more rational to require that the threat or promise shall have placed the prisoner in a situation where an untrue statement of guilt became more desirable to him than the alternative courses of silence or a truthful avowal of innocence. Historically, the courts have gone very far in excluding confessions, influenced at the start by the harshness of the old criminal law which forbade the prisoner to be represented by a lawyer or to testify on his own behalf

* On page 272.

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and denied him the power to compel witnesses to testify for him. Since he now possesses all these privileges, adherence today to the old confession precedents causes too much mercy, and some decisions in the Supreme Court itself seem over-lenient.

To what extent should the old confession rule be retained in the criminal courts of the future? This problem involves the Constitution, for although, as already stated, the rule excluding confessions was established by the common law independently of any constitutional clause, yet in so far as the confession was obtained by fear or other compulsion, the common law rule overlaps the requirement of the Federal and State Constitutions that no man shall be compelled to incriminate himself. Thus the question of obtaining compulsory information about the crime from the prisoner in preliminary investigations before trial is intimately connected with the question whether he should be obliged to take the stand during the trial. It may be that we ought to abolish or greatly modify both the common law and constitutional provisions which prevent the government from obtaining information about a crime from the person who often knows most about it, and who is in many cases where the law now protects him, guilty. For instance, the evidence offered against Ziang Sung Wan in addition to his confessions, which is stated by the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia (289 Fed. Rep. 908), makes it seem very probable that he was justly convicted. Why then, regardless of his guilt, should the conviction be set aside? Certainly the rules against compulsion can no longer be retained merely from mercifulness or the feeling that it is hard on a guilty man that he should be condemned by his own words. What more rational grounds exist for forbidding compulsion at the present day?

The most obvious reason is the danger that confessions of guilt obtained through intolerable pressure will be false. Wigmore gives an impressive list of cases where this has happened (§867). Of late years, psychologists have shown that even without any serious pressure, love of notoriety or other pathological causes lead innocent persons to profess guilt. This danger may be exaggerated, but it must at least be considered.

Secondly, if prosecuting officials are given free rein to establish their case against a prisoner from his own lips, they will be tempted to rely almost exclusively upon this dubious kind of evidence instead of exerting themselves to build up a strong case by searching laboriously for independent proof such as documents, eye-witnesses of the crime, and persons who, by their testimony may furnish good circumstantial evidence against the prisoner. Prosecuting officials and the police are comparatively few in number in this country in proportion to their tasks. They are terribly rushed and like most human beings, are inclined to take the line of least resistance. To extort a confession will often seem the easiest way to convict. Once sanction is given to one kind of brutality, others will easily follow. Fitzjames Stephens, the historian of English criminal law, concludes that the French law by admitting compulsory statements of the accused before trial often brings about a poorer case for the prosecution than in the English courts, where the proof is ordinarily confined to objective evidence.

This objection, however, applies much less forcibly to the compulsory testimony of the accused in the criminal trial itself, after the prosecution has built up its case by objective evidence; yet in all the states in this country but one and in the federal courts, if the accused stays off the stand, neither the prosecuting attorney nor the judge may argue to the jury that this fact is any indication of guilt, although such an inference is only common-sense. Comment on this fact ought to be allowed, as it is now in England and New Jersey. If prosecuting officials and police knew that this pressure could be exerted to obtain the prisoner's story of the crime at the trial, where he is safeguarded by the presence of the judge and his counsel, they would be less tempted to get it from him before the trial in seclusion by such methods as the "third degree."

Finally, even if confessions extorted by grilling were usually true and furnished satisfactory proof of guilt, the use of such a method should be rejected because of its injurious effect upon the public. If a government is to retain the devotion and confidence of the people, it must not violate their sense of decency. Inquisitorial methods are bound to leak out, perhaps in exaggerated form. The men who are convicted thereby are believed by a considerable number of persons to be innocent. It is not enough that the people should get justice; they must believe that they are getting justice. They will not so believe if conduct of the police like that in the Ziang Sung Wan case is a frequent occurrence.

The Supreme Court's opinion forcibly proves the need of a thorough-going investigation of the extent to which the "third degree" prevails in American cities, and a careful consideration of the circumstances under which interrogation of the accused by government officials should be permitted, if at all. Such an inquiry may lead us to change the law so that a prisoner may be forced to take the stand at his trial. Perhaps even an examination before trial might be permitted if conducted by a responsible magistrate, possibly in the presence of the prisoner's counsel who should abstain from vexatious interference but be on hand to furnish proper protection. If interrogation before trial is essential to the proper discovery of crime, as the defenders of the "third degree" insist, the practice should be expressly recognized by the law and surrounded by proper safeguards, and not allowed to go on illegally in a place where the prisoner is isolated from impartial officials, family, friends, and legal advisers, with no one to inform him of his rights or report brutalities.

ZECHARIAH CHAFEE, JR.

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The Turkish Tragedy

THE tragedy in Turkey is more extensive than the sad plight of minorities. Those who have the patience to refrain in the Near East from a premature partisanship are likely soon to arrive at a state of mind in which all parties are so much to blame that the question of assigning responsibility is at most one of quantities and proportions. But a deeper and fuller acquaintance with the sufferings of all these peoples brings with it a revulsion. One becomes disgusted with the whole affair of guilt. Pity for all populations, minority and majority alike, engulfs all other sentiments—except that of indignation against the foreign powers which have so unremittingly and so cruelly utilized the woes of their puppets for their own ends.

The situation in Turkey with respect to Turks, Armenians and Greeks alike meets all the terms of the classic definition of tragedy, the tragedy of fate. A curse has been laid upon all populations and all have moved forward blindly to suffer their doom.

It is a tragedy with only victims, not heroes, no matter how heroic individuals may have been. There are villains, but they are muffled figures appearing upon the open stage only for fleeting glimpses. They are the Great Powers, among which it is surely not invidious to select Russia and Great Britain by name. It is easy to become a fatalist in the presence of the history of Asia Minor and the Balkans; any one who would write history in terms of Providence is well advised to keep clear of these territories.

We were in Brusa, the seat of the Ottoman power before the capture of Constantinople, one of the most beautiful and in natural promise most prosperous of the cities of Anatolian Turkey. As we walked the streets we passed alternately by the closed shops and houses formerly kept by Greeks and Armenians who are now dead or deported in exchange for Turks in Greece, and by the ruins of buildings of the Turkish population burnt by the Greeks in their retreat. We saw business houses which had changed hands back and forth, the Greeks seizing the property of Turkish merchants and compelling the latter to flee the city when they were in power, and Turkish merchants in present possession of trades and commercial institutions formerly belonging to Greeks. There was a jumble with no outstanding fact except that of general suffering and ruin. It struck me as a symbol of the whole situation, only on a smaller scale and with less bloodshed and rapine than is found in most parts of the Anatolian territory.

The valley of "Green Brusa" was full of flourishing tobacco crops. Even they had a voice speaking indirectly of misery. A few years ago no tobacco was grown in this region. It was introduced by the Turks expelled from Macedonia now precariously occupied by the Greeks—precariously because Serbs and Bulgars both claim it in the name of nationalism—with Turks nourishing resentment in memory of their long and industrious residence from which they have been violently expelled. Thus the flourishing tobacco told the same tale as the declining silk-cocoon business, the latter languishing because it was the industry of Greeks now forced to remove. I know nothing which speaks more urgently of the common tragedy than the fact that the cruel exchange of populations by the half million, this uprooting of men, women and children transferring them to places where they do not want to go and where they are not wanted, has seemed to honest and kind persons the only hope for the avoidance of future atrocities.

Brusa serves also as a symbol of another phase of the situation. We passed through the Jewish quarter, and found the Jews still in possession of their homes and property, the more flourishing perhaps because of the total absence of their former commercial competitors, the Greeks and Armenians. Unbidden the thought comes to mind: Happy the minority which has had no Christian nation to protect it. And one recalls that the Jews took up their abode in "fanatic" Turkey when they were expelled from Europe, especially Spain, by saintly Christians, and they have lived here for some centuries in at least as much tranquillity and liberty as their fellow Turkish subjects, all being exposed alike to the rapacity of their common rulers. To one brought up, as most Americans have been, in the Gladstonian and foreign-missionary tradition, the condition of the Jews in Turkey is almost a mathematical demonstration that religious differences have had an influence in the tragedy of Turkey only as they were combined with aspirations for a political separation which every nation in the world would have treated as treasonable. One readily reaches the conclusion that the Jews in Turkey were fortunate that a Zionistic state had not been built up which should feel strong enough to intervene in Turkish politics and stimulate a separatist movement and political revolt. In contrast, the fate of the Greeks and Armenians, the tools of nationalistic and imperialistic ambitions of foreign powers, makes one realize how accursed has been the minority population that had the protection of a Christian foreign power.

Unfortunately the end is not yet, even with the completed exchange of populations, and the accompanying misery of peoples at least temporarily homeless, often unacquainted with the language of their home-kin, with thousands of orphans and beggared refugees, as numerous among the Turks as among the Armenians and Greeks, even if our

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Christian benevolence, still under the influence of foreign political propaganda, does not hear so much about or experience the same solicitude for Turkish woes. The end is not yet because, in the case of the Armenians at least, the great powers have not even yet become willing to refrain from experimenting at their expense. One can hardly blame the Greeks in their unsettled and unstable condition for asking that a considerable portion of the deported Armenians be again deported, this time from Greek soil. But what shall we say when we read that already at Geneva a plea has been made for the creation of the Armenian "home" in Caucasian Turkey—a home that would require protection by some foreign power and be the prelude to new armed conflicts and ultimate atrocities? Few Americans who mourn, and justly, the miseries of the Armenians, are aware that till the rise of nationalistic ambitions, beginning with the 'seventies, the Armenians were the favored portion of the population of Turkey, or that in the Great War, they traitorously turned Turkish cities over to the Russian invader; that they boasted of having raised an army of one hundred and fifty thousand men to fight a civil war, and that they burned at least a hundred Turkish villages and exterminated their population. I do not mention these things by way of appraising or extenuating blame because the story of provocations and reprisals is as futile as it is endless; but it indicates what happened in the past to both Armenian and Turkish populations when the minority element was taken under the protecting care of a foreign Christian power, and what will recur if the Armenians should be organized into a buffer state. Nor is it likely to be better in "little Armenia," if the Armenians of Latin Catholic persuasion are deposited between the Turks to the north and Syria to the south, which is, according to newspaper reports, to be the French policy in connection with their mandated territory.

If human wit is baffled in seeking constructive measures which shall transform the tragic scene into one of happiness, history at least makes clear a negative lesson. Nothing but evil to all parties has come in the past or will come in the future from the attempts of foreign nations to utilize the national aspirations of minority populations in order to advance their own political interests, while they then conceal and justify their villainous courses by appeal to religion. After all the Turks are here; there is a wide territory in which they form an undisputed majority; for centuries the land has been their own; the sentiments have gathered about it that always attend long habitation. Whether we like it or not, other elements in the population must accommodate themselves to this dominant element, as surely as, say, immigrants in America have to adjust their political aspirations and nationalistic preferences to the fact of a unified national state. If a fiftieth of the energy, money and planning that has been given to fostering antagonisms among the populations had been given to searching out terms upon which the populations could live peaceably together without the disruption of Turkey, the situation today would be enormously better than it is. Whether the European great powers have learned the lesson that their protection and aid is a fatal and tragic gift, there is no way of knowing. But it is at least time that Americans ceased to be deceived by propaganda in behalf of policies which are now demonstrated to bring death and destruction impartially to all elements, and which are nauseating precisely in the degree that they are smeared over with sentiments alleged to be derived from religion. Finally, if slowly, the Turks also have been converted to nationalism. The disease exists in a virulent form at just this moment. It will abate or be exacerbated in just the degree in which the Turkish nation is accepted in good faith as an accomplished fact by other nations, or in which the old tradition of intervention, intrigue and incitation persists. In the latter case, the bloody tragedy of Turkey and the Balkans will continue to unroll.

JOHN DEWEY.

Communists Before the Lord

HEREWITH I issue a warning to the National Security League, the Better America Federation, the Ku Klux Klan and all the rest of the associations for the promotion of grisly fear over the Red Menace: Communistic principles are far more widely diffused than they imagine. If those associations will search diligently they will find in their own membership large numbers who are unconsciously entertaining communistic principles. Indeed, it is a brave hundred percenter who can go to Europe and return wholly uninfected. It is time the defenders of traditional institutions stopped searching the records of occasional wild eyed immigrants and set to searching their own hearts.

When anyone announces a startling discovery like this he is at once clubbed over the head with the question: Why has it not been discovered before? The answer is easy. The inquiry into the spread of communistic principles has never been conducted fairly and intelligently. The conventional way of trying to discover a man's attitude toward communism is to apply the communistic hypothesis directly to his own affairs. You are, let us say, one of the more prosperous citizens in your community. You have a grand house, majestic furniture, a splendid

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dining service. Now, do you want to be put out of these good things by a rising of the rabble? Are you longing to see a ragged revolutionary committee established in your house, noisily dining around your mahogany table, throwing the bones under the table to Bolshevik curs, breaking the Sèvres china over one another's heads in the warmth of philosophical discussion? Not by a jugful of old Pre-War.

Is it not settled then, that you are wholly non-communist? No: all that is settled is that you are not a communist, *for yourself*. You are a prohibitionist. Are you necessarily a prohibitionist for yourself? You hold to the Golden Rule. For yourself, or for the other fellow? You are strong for the Ten Commandments, for the other fellow; for him, you approve of the struggle for existence, after making sure your own existence is softly padded. For the other fellow you approve contentment with a mediocre lot; you praise discipline, docility, ignoring the turbulent strivings by which you have raised yourself to a position of command. This, then, is the moral touchstone. What do you approve of for the other fellow? It is my contention that you approve of communism.

We are not yet quite ready to proceed to the proofs. We must first make up our minds who shall stand for the other fellow. Not our brothers or cousins, our uncles or our aunts. Not our business associates, our friends, the members of our clubs. We must find someone who stands outside of the pale of our sympathetic interest. Thus the inquiry narrows down to the inevitable right object. It is the German. A great many of us are communists when we are put to this infallible scientific test, our feelings about the Germans. Unconscious communists, to be sure, but that is the very most reliable brand, like the unconscious liar or the unconscious Christian.

I was sipping my coffee on the Piazza in Venice, in the company of a hard shelled business man from Omaha. Next us a number of small tables had been merged into one to accommodate a large party of Germans. All of them, men and women alike, were fat. The men had their hair clipped close to the very tops of their heads, and you could see the well nourished skin glowing under the blond stubble. The women had real pearls breathing softly or throbbing spasmodically on their spacious bosoms, pink under the stratum of rice powder. They were gorging on caviar and washing it down with champagne. The conversation was highly intellectual, and merry. They were discussing a book, Die Philosophie des Als Ob. And whether they had all read it or not, they were all enough up on it, by the grace of the Extra Dry, to make witty remarks about it.

My Omaha companion fidgeted in his chair. "Let's get to hell out of here. I can't stand those damn Germans."

As we strolled across the Piazza, picking our way among the sombre masses of Venetians assembling for the band concert, my friend gave further vent to his feelings.

"It's this way wherever you go. Germans eating and drinking, spilling money like water. That's how it is in Switzerland, Holland, London and even Paris. After all this jammering about how poor Germany is. It makes me sick."

It had made me somewhat sick, too, I confess. But I couldn't let the matter rest there without an argument.

"Germany may be desperately poor for all that. In fact, we both know she is. These Germans we see spending money are few, after all. Suppose there are ten thousand—and that would be more than enough to produce an impression. What are ten thousand out of sixty million? If you divided up their profits equally among the German population how many cents would each family get?"

"That may all be so," he said sternly. "Just the same, nobody is going to get a cent out of me for German orphans till they put these fellows in the pan and fry the lard out of them."

"You mean Germany ought to tax them? She does. She levies all the taxes the traffic will bear, and more. A state can't take so much of a man's income as to leave him a bare minimum of existence. Suppose our government tried to take everything you make above a thousand dollars. Would they get it?"

"No. But the case is entirely different."

"So it is," I admitted, "Those fellows are Germans. You aren't. That is the real difference."

"That is one difference." He looked very grim. "Let's charter a gondola and hear the singing."

You might suppose that the Omaha business man was quite exceptional in his attitude toward the German spendthrift profiteers. Not at all. I met dozens and dozens of Americans abroad—most of them hundred percenters—who held the same opinions. I have met many more right here in New York. Some of them have made speeches about it, and more of them have written to the papers. It is a general state of mind. Confess you feel that way about it yourself. We may therefore proceed straight to the implications of this attitude.

Germany is a great country. It has some sixty million people, most of them miserably poor. Tens of thousands of them who were formerly comfortably rich are now in abject poverty. Everything they had went up when the mark exploded. But what goes up must come down somewhere, damaged, probably, but with salvage value. What one man loses in this way, somebody else must find. When wages are thrust below the level of tolerable living, somebody must make profits. Under a system of private business no economic disaster can befall a country without generating a class of nouveaux riches, and those who have been newly enriched by disaster will spend freely. For they have no solid confidence in the future. Disaster may

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turn about at the end of the furrow and plough them under next.

The German drinking champagne in Venice, sunburning himself on the Riviera, shaking his fat sides at the Folies Bergères, weighing down the cushioned lounges at Claridge's is the necessary, natural, inevitable, fruitage of the system of private enterprise. You don't like him? Look sharply to your economic orthodoxy. You may deny it unawares, before the cock crows thrice. You think something ought to be done about these intolerable spenders? What in Heaven's name can be done, except to force communism on Germany? Under communism there might be no fewer Germans that are poor. There would certainly be no rich ones to offend you. Look at the Russians. You may see all sorts of strange things in Europe, if you are enterprising, but you will never see a Soviet Russian eating caviar or doing havoc to the wine stocks.

We are all communists before the Lord. For the other fellow. That is, for the Germans.

ALVIN JOHNSON.

Twenty Five Years of It

IN marking by an anniversary dinner, to be held November 14, the twenty-five years of leadership of Mrs. Florence Kelley, the Consumers' League and Mrs. Kelley's friends honor not only the achievements of an organization, but what is more rare, the career of an individual who, it may with truth be said, has genuinely influenced more than one generation.

When Mrs. Kelley came in 1899 as secretary to the newly formed National Consumers' League, the idea of using the power of the consumer to remedy industrial evils had already taken form. Consumers' Leagues existed in New York, Boston, Philadelphia and Chicago whose members joined to register their sense of responsibility for the conditions under which goods were made and distributed. To this movement Mrs. Kelley added her dynamic force and intellectual vision.

It is not usual to find united in the same individual eminent powers of the mind and of the heart. "La vie est une comédie à ceux qui pensent, une tragédie à ceux qui sentent," remains true of the majority of mankind. In rare individuals like Florence Kelley a passion for social justice, a tenderness for the humblest human attributes, has not been incompatible with a searching intellect and a mordant wit. The human scene, for all its tragic aspects, loses for her none of its dry comedy.

Mrs. Kelley came to the Consumers' League singularly well equipped to educate her constituency, that is the general public, to a better knowledge of industrial affairs. She was a graduate of Cornell University and a member of the Illinois bar, at a time when women university graduates were comparatively few and women lawyers still more uncommon. She was known as the translator of Engels's vivid Conditions of the Working Class in England in 1842. She had served in 1892 as special agent of the federal government in charge of its inquiry into conditions in Chicago, for the Report on the Slums of Great Cities. In that day such social research was a new and uncharted field. She had had, moreover, the unique experience of serving as the first (and to this day the only) woman head of a state factory inspection department. From 1893 to 1897 she was Chief of the Illinois Factory Inspectors. The proof of her eminence is to be found in the official reports of the department during those years.

This experience gave her authentic knowledge of working conditions. How the workers lived in tenement homes she had learned to know no less well through residence first with Miss Addams at Hull House, a member of which she was for many years, and later at the Henry Street Settlement in New York with Miss Wald. From such sources Mrs. Kelley acquired an arsenal of facts with which to attack abuses. For her, the point of departure in any reform has been not so much theoretical assumptions as specific evils of which she has herself been the indignant witness and to which her gift of eloquence has enabled her to bear effective testimony. Mrs. Kelley's speaking, like that of most distinguished speakers, is uneven. But at her best, she is brilliant, incisive, strongly moving. The originality of her phrase, written or spoken, is perhaps its most marked characterictic.

Mrs. Kelley's name is perhaps more closely identified with social legislation than with any other activity, both through her book, published in 1905, on Some Ethical Gains through Legislation, and her unequalled record as protagonist for such laws. It is probably not too much to say that no single individual has done more than Mrs. Kelley, through her long years of keen participation in local, state and federal campaigns, towards securing the body of social legislation which exists in the United States today. Thirty years ago, for instance, when the work of children, often for hours now thought excessive for adults, was either quite ignored or tolerated, Mrs. Kelley from her knowledge of Illinois factories, was already denouncing child labor, and upholding the preciousness of childhood. Later, while herself living on New York's lower East Side, she could not rest so long as she continued to meet on the Grand Street cars in the Christmas holidays, little cash girls, not yet fourteen years old, wearily making their way home, sometimes after midnight. She was a moving spirit in the formation of the first child labor committee in New York in 1903, and later of the National Child Labor Committee. The federal Children's Bureau, from

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the time it was first suggested, has had in her one of its staunchest backers. The hearings at Washington, before its creation and at every crisis of its career would have lost much of their flavor as well as their effectiveness without her trenchant aid.

Mrs. Kelley had hoped with the founders of the Consumers' League that its object of improving industrial conditions might be accomplished by the method of persuasion alone, that is by educating the public to give preference to those merchants and manufacturers whose conditions of employment were satisfactory. But it soon became apparent that while persuasion might be effective with enlightened employers it did not avail to secure from their less scrupulous competitors even such poor concessions as seats for girls, or a mitigation of what Mrs. Kelley labelled the "Christmas cruelties" of overwork in department stores. Persuasion, it proved, must be reinforced by law, that is by the state's setting a minimum below which none may fall.

Under Mrs. Kelley's leadership, therefore, the Consumers' Leagues have themselves secured or joined others in obtaining legislation prohibiting child labor, setting standards of safety and sanitation, combating the greatest industrial danger, that of overfatigue, through laws limiting the day's and week's work and prohibiting night work. Beginning in 1910, after the successful initiation of the trade boards acts setting minimum wages in England and Australasia, Mrs. Kelley was practically first in educating opinion in this country towards minimum wage legislation, now unhappily checked by a single adverse opinion in the Supreme Court of the United States.

More than a quarter century earlier Mrs. Kelley had experienced a similar check in administering, as responsible head of the Illinois factory inspectors, the ten-hour law for women of that state. In what is known as the first Ritchie case, the Supreme Court of Illinois had in 1895 declared the ten-hour law unconstitutional. Not until 1910 did the court reverse itself, following Justice (then Mr.) Brandeis's new line of defense: the presentation, that is, of the concrete facts of industry set forth as justification for the act, in the interest of public health, morals and welfare. To further this new line of defense, successfully invoked in the fifteen arguments of cases, has been one of Mrs. Kelley's dominant interests.

But industry and industrial affairs have not been her whole concern. To a true lover of her race, there have been evils and injustices other than industrial to be combatted. She was from the first a leader in the cause of Equal Suffrage. Few movements to aid the oppressed have been without her active help. Efforts on behalf of the Negro, more especially, have enlisted her sympathetic ardor. Through the League for Industrial Democracy as well as the Consumers' League, she has been in closer touch with the colleges than most extramural speakers. Youth responds, as it always does, to one in whom there have never been quenched the fires of youth. Indeed, if any criticism is to be passed on the range of her activities, it is that they have been too lavish; that she has spent herself in ways that would have been fatal for a less robust vitality and which have sometimes strained even her tireless energies.

But it is of the nature of education to be never completed, and after thirty years' service there is as great need as ever for Mrs. Kelley; above all for that pure spirit of justice of which she is, as it were, a voice and an embodiment.

JOSEPHINE GOLDMARK.

The Third Degree*

WAN was a native of China. He had come to the United States in 1916, at twenty-two, as a student. In 1918, he engaged in a business which proved unsuccessful. Since December of that year, or earlier, his health had been bad. He had an attack of Spanish influenza. He suffered continuously from a chronic stomach trouble which led him to eat sparingly and irregularly. When the detectives entered his room unannounced they found him in bed. They had no search warrant; but they made a search of the room and his effects, including the bed in which he lay. They were accompanied by a New York police officer; but they did not arrest Wan. They requested that he return with them to Washington. He told them he was too sick. Li, who had been left waiting, was called in and told Wan, that both of them were suspected of the murder.† Then, Wan consented to go with the detectives to Washington.

On arrival in Washington, Wan was not put formally under arrest; but he was taken to a secluded room. In the presence of three detectives, the superintendent of police, and Li, he was subjected there to questioning for five or six hours. Late in the evening of that first day, the detectives took him to the Hotel Dewey; and, without entering his name in the hotel registry, placed him in a bedroom on an upper floor. In that room he was detained continuously one week. Throughout the period, he was sick, and, most of the time, in bed. A physician was repeatedly called. It was a police surgeon who came. In vain Wan asked to see his brother with whom he lived in New York; who had nursed him in his illness; who had come to Washington at his request in January; who had returned with him to New York; and whom, as he later learned, the detectives had also brought to Washington, were detaining in another room of the hotel, and were subjecting to like interrogation.

Wan was held in the hotel room without formal arrest, incommunicado. But he was not left alone. Every

* Supreme Court decision, written by Mr. Justice Brandeis, in the case of Ziang Sung Wan vs. the United States of America (a short, technical passage being omitted).

† Of three inmates of a house in Washington occupied by the Chinese Educational Mission.

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moment of the day, and of the night, at least one member of the police force was on guard inside his room. Three ordinary policemen were assigned to this duty. Each served eight hours; the shifts beginning at midnight, at eight in the morning, and at four in the afternoon. Morning, afternoon and evening (and at least on one occasion after midnight) the prisoner was visited by the superintendent of police and/or one or more of the detectives. The sole purpose of these visits was to interrogate him. Regardless of Wan's wishes and protest, his condition of health or the hour they engaged him in conversation. He was subjected to persistent, lengthy and repeated cross-examination. Sometimes it was subtle, sometimes severe. Always the examination was conducted with a view to entrapping Wan into a confession of his own guilt and/or that of his brother. Whenever these visitors entered the room, the guard was stationed outside the closed door.

On the eighth day, the accusatory questioning took a more excruciating form. A detective was in attendance throughout the day. In the evening, Wan was taken from Hotel Dewey to the Mission. There, continuously for ten hours, this sick man was led from floor to floor minutely to examine and re-examine the scene of the triple murder and every object connected with it, to give explanations, and to answer questions. The places where the dead men were discovered; the revolver with which presumably the murder was committed, the blood stains and the finger prints thereon; the bullet holes in the walls; the discharged cartridges found upon the floor; the clothes of the murdered men; the blood stains on the floor and the stairs; a bloody handkerchief; the coat and pillow which had been found covering the dead men's faces; photographs, taken by the police, of the men as they lay dead; the doors and windows through which the murderer might have entered or made his escape; photostat copies of writings, by means of which it was sought to prove that Wan was implicated in a forgery incident to the murder; all these were shown him. Every supposed fact ascertained by the detectives in the course of their investigation was related to him. Concerning every object, every incident detailed, he was, in the presence of a stenographer, plied with questions by the superintendent of police and the detectives. By these he was engaged in argument; sometimes separately, sometimes in joint attack. The process of interrogation became ever more insistent. It passed at times from inquiry into command. From seven o'clock in the evening until five o'clock in the morning the questioning continued. Before it was concuded, Li, who was again in attendance, had left the Mission about midnight, worn out by the long hours. The superintendent of police had returned to his home, apparently exhausted. One of the detectives had fallen asleep. To Wan, not a moment of sleep was allowed.

On the ninth day, at twenty minutes past five in the morning, Wan was taken from the Mission to the station house and placed formally under arrest. There, the interrogation was promptly resumed. Again the detectives were in attendance, day and evening, plying their questions; pointing out alleged contradictions; arguing with the prisoner; and urging him to confess, lest his brother be deemed guilty of the crime. Still the statements secured failed to satisfy the detectives' craving for evidence. On the tenth day, Wan was "bundled up"; was again taken to the Mission; was again questioned there for hours; and there "the whole thing was again talked of and enacted." On the eleventh day, a formal interrogation of Wan was conducted at the station house by the detectives in the presence of a stenographer. On the twelfth day, the verbatim typewritten report of the interrogation (which occupies twelve pages of the printed record) was read to Wan, in his cell at the jail. There, he signed the report and initialled each page. On the thirteenth day, for the first time, Wan was visited by the chief medical officer of the jail, in the performance of his duties. This experienced physician and surgeon testified, without contradiction, to the condition of the prisoner:

"[He] found . . . [Wan] lying in a bunk in the cell, very weak, very much exhausted, very much emaciated; he complained of abdominal pain, which was rather intense. He told witness, and witness afterwards saw, that he vomited if he attempted to take food; that it was difficult or impossible for his bowels to move unless they were assisted by an enema; witness thought he was very seriously ill; . . . ordered certain tests by the laboratory . . . ; had his blood examined and his abdomen X-rayed and had him removed from the cell to the Red Cross room; . . . concluded he was suffering from spastic colitis: [involving contraction of the bowel.] . . . The result of that contraction would be almost constant pain, excited by any further additions to the contents of the tract at that point, and vomiting and persistent constipation . . . Witness knows defendant was in bed at least a month after his treatment was prescribed. From witness's observation and medical experience, judging from the defendant's emaciation and history he gave witness, and his condition generally, would say that when witness saw the defendant on February 13 he had been ill for a matter of weeks . . . He told me he had been talked to all one night and had not received any medical attention, and had been in constant pain all of this time and had been unable to eat for days, and considering all those facts I came to the conclusion that he was so exhausted that he was really desperate—he told me also that he had signed a confession."

[Then the witness was further questioned by the court.]

> Question. You thought he was so exhausted mentally that he would not know what he was signing . . . Would he know what he was signing?
>
> Answer. He would know what he was signing, yes.
>
> Question. Would he be liable to sign a confession that would lead him to the gallows in that condition?
>
> Answer. I think he would, if he wanted to be left alone.
>
> Question. With spastic colitis, if he was accused of crime he would simply sign a paper and say, "You hang me"? That is your opinion as a medical man?
>
> Answer. I say, if he was as sick as that and in as great pain as that, he would do anything to have the torture stopped.

The Court of Appeals appears to have held the prisoner's statements admissible on the ground that a confession made by one competent to act is to be deemed voluntary, as a matter of law, if it was not induced by a promise or a threat; and that here there was evidence sufficient to justify a finding of fact that these statements were not

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so induced. In the federal courts, the requisite of voluntariness is not satisfied by establishing merely that the confession was not induced by a promise or a threat. A confession is voluntary in law if, and only if, it was, in fact, voluntarily made. A confession may have been given voluntarily, although it was made to police officers, while in custody, and in answer to an examination conducted by them. But a confession obtained by compulsion must be excluded whatever may have been the character of the compulsion, and whether the compulsion was applied in a judicial proceeding or otherwise. *Bram* v. *United States*, 168 U. S. 532. None of the five statements introduced by the Government as admissions or confessions was made until after Wan had been subjected for seven days to the interrogation. The testimony given by the superintendent of police, the three detectives and the chief medical officer left no room for a contention that the statements of the defendant were, in fact, voluntary. The undisputed facts showed that compulsion was applied. As to that matter there was no issue upon which the jury could properly have been required or permitted to pass. The alleged oral statements and the written confession should have been excluded.

Earth Reluctant

Let my dust lie
  On gold and stone;
Let the dead speak
  To dust alone.

You part my sand
  For a Caesar's house,
For a bronze god no one
  Will offer vows;

Your spades strike down
  To the quays where ships
Took seamen outward
  From dark girls' lips;

And you lift bronze cups
  That are useless now
As a dark girl's lips
  Or a seaman's vow . . .

Hunt no secret
  In this long old,
Long dead city.
  The stone and gold

Were ripened beauty
  That could not last.
Let the dust keep
  What dust took fast

Though it be fairer
  Than you shall carve
Where black wheels glisten
  And black ships wharve.

Let my dust lie
  On walls and doors
Long sealed with death
  That is theirs . . . and yours.

FRANK ERNEST HILL.

The Bandwagon

THE PERFECT, GENTLE KNIGHT

Mr. Menken, who said that he did not wish to get into a controversy with a woman, decided, as he put it in his statement, to "omit detailed reference to the things I heard while in Budapest last year."

—New York Times, reporting attempt of S. Stanwood Menken to have Countess Karolyi deported.

SOMEHOW, WE SUSPECTED THIS

Not only have I learned, but I *learn continually* from the folks in Sullivan, Indiana. My work in national politics, as Postmaster General, and with the great motion picture industry, has kept me away from home much of the time, but I can trace every single one of my fundamental opinions and the resultant activities directly back to the folks in Sullivan.

—Will Hays, former Chairman G. O. P. National Committee, in Hearst's International Magazine.

WHY MERRY ENGLAND IS

"I learned while in England that the populace are pleasure mad. They deride our Prohibition laws."

—Bishop Alma White of the Pillar of Fire Church, as quoted in The World, June 11.

ISN'T IT LUCKY HIS TASTE IS SO GOOD!

The Rev. Anthelme Mollard, a Catholic priest, saw a troupe of players perform on Sunday afternoon and decided that the poor quality of the several numbers shown was sufficient to warrant him advising the troupe to leave the city.

Many acts have been closed here (Fitchburg, Mass.), after one performance, as "inferior."

—Variety.

PERHAPS THERE ISN'T ANY

When these wretches (Leopold and Loeb) escaped capital punishment, what is the sense of capital punishment at all?

—New York Sun.

THEN AGAIN CHILD LABOR IS SO INEXPENSIVE

"The Senate of the United States and the House of Representatives have passed another amendment to the Constitution. This venerable document, regarded with pride by our forefathers, has become like a crazy quilt . . . The object and purpose of this amendment is to give Congress authority to enact laws for destroying the evil of child labor and to protect helpless children . . . This is the most extraordinary power even given to a Government. It is unadulterated Bolshevism. Lenin and Trotsky conceived few ideas more revolutionary than this . . . It implies the destruction of parental authority and the life of the family . . . Child labor is an evil, no doubt. It requires little observation to learn that child idleness is also an evil of vast proportions. More children are ruined by idleness than by labor."

—Calvin S. Slagle of Baltimore, in the New York Times.

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CORRESPONDENCE

The Christmas Ship

SIR: Of the issues before the wide-awake people of the United States no one is more difficult or important than that of our relations abroad. How much shall we mix in European politics with the complications of their minor and major jealousies and strifes?

To the church women of America there seems one course which can bring only good results, and that course is to be steered by a Christmas Ship of Friendship, sailing November 15 to carry a cargo of the fruits of good will to the tired, over-strained, anguished motherhood of Germany. Leading women among Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Methodists, Baptists, Congregationalists, and other religious denominations have organized this Women's Church Committee on International Goodwill, under the chairmanship of a Quaker. They are sending out this ship laden with such startlingly simple Christmas presents as milk and cocoa, clothes, sheets and codliver oil, greatly desired in Germany. With the gifts will arrive in Germany a group of representative religious women who will meet with the organized religious groups in the German cities and towns and carry by word and handclasp the greetings of America to the women of the New Germany.

Money for this enterprise to purchase foodstuffs and sheeting should be sent to the Women's Church Committee on International Goodwill, Room 608 East 22nd street, New York, N. Y.

CAROLENA M. WOOD.

New York, N. Y.

The Spur to Talent

SIR: In the fall literary section of your paper, the review of Pierre Curie, by Fola La Follette, carries the impression that if the Curie family had been removed from economic pressure, science would have gained thereby.

There is a question involved here. The fact that they discovered radium under such circumstances might mean that they would not have been crowned with such success had they been otherwise situated.

Another great Frenchman, Bernard Palissy, burnt his furniture to prove his quest of glazed pottery, and what a discovery!

Whilst it is beyond question that much talent has been lost to the world through our crude economic system, the reverse may be true, that under other circumstances some of our present established facts of science would still be secrets.

The reviewer also gave the impression that she expected to have found feelings of bitterness and irony in the hearts of the famous scientists against the impoverished condition under which they were obliged to work. No! They were in ecstacy and were not to be pitied, as the greatest joy in life is found in the viewpoint held by them, which the reviewer admirably states and in which I concur.

JOSEPH FROST.

Chicago, Ill.

What Prohibition Needs

SIR: In an editorial paragraph of your issue of May 14, the opinion is expressed that only by the establishment of a federal police, formed by members chosen by anti-saloon leagues and churches and invested with unlimited powers of search and seizure, can the prohibition law be enforced. If anything like this were true, the optimism of prohibitionists would indeed be unjustified. The root of enforcement can be reached by much simpler and less expensive means. It lies in the power of the federal government and it requires two courses of action. First, by agreements with other nations for the prevention of exports of wines and spirits; second, by the drastic revision of the system of federal permits. Permits are now issued with no consideration of the amount of wine and spirits necessary for the alleged purpose; industrial alcohol is denatured by a process easily reversed and there are other abuses too numerous to mention. There would still be work for state and local authorities, but they would not be faced, as they are now, by a rising tide they can no more control than could Canute.

A more honest personnel is sorely needed, and the Civil Service should be put in charge. But, both before and since prohibition, as we learned in the suffrage fight, alcohol has provided the pickings for the smaller political rascals. The revelation in Washington have made this plain to the country. The larger beasts find their profit elsewhere, but they save these scraps for the jackals, by whom the marginal votes are bought and sold.

That a certain number of temperate persons oppose the prohibition laws is understandable only on two assumptions: either that they have never observed one of those unfortunately numerous cases in which alcohol has proved itself a habit-forming drug and so have not realized that there is no more dangerous enemy to personal liberty; or that they have known and loved cases of unusual brains joined to admirable character, so highly sensitive that their preservation demanded at times some veil between them and reality. But this last is a problem too serious to be met so unscientifically.

Prohibitionists are not all thick-skinned moralists, nor enemies of personal liberty. But we have come to believe that there is ample warrant for classing alcohol with morphine, and that many of the world problems might be faced and solved if they could not be evaded.

MARGARET NORRIE.

New York, N. Y.

The Immigrant's World

SIR: Among all those who fear an alien influence and call for "pure Americanism" in our politics, how many are there who know, or have ever tried to find out, the motives that animate foreign-born Americans, at election time or at any other time? How many of them realize what the Croatian journal, Hrvatski Glasnik, of Chicago, states so simply—that the average alien "lives in an America which is entirely unknown to Americans"? Consider these lines:

> When a crook, ordinarily of foreign birth himself, fleeces his own unfortunate countrymen of a few million dollars he succeeds in passing through the courts with little or no punishment. We know of fraudulent cases involving hundreds of thousands of dollars in which the perpetrator never was brought to court. Consequently it goes from mouth to mouth among the uneducated aliens that "he has a pull," and "he is a friend of that politician." These are the things that repulse his faith in American institutions. He sees that in practice there exists for him only "pull" and partisan protection. He sees that whoever wishes individual protection must have money; collectively he must be organized politically under his own national name. This is comical and ridiculous, but it is a fact, as witness in America the various "Italian Political Clubs," or "Bohemian" or "Polish" clubs, and so. Who inspires such political separatism? Native Americans in the first place. There are exceedingly few American politicians who do not look for favor among the national groups and who do not divide the profits with the leaders of such groups. Americanism is hampered by this strictly American process.

Every alien who enters the United States goes on trial at once to prove his fitness to remain and prosper here. But do Americans realize that they are likewise on trial before a mass of shrewd immigrant jurors? In a high lookout like the Foreign Language Information Service one is made conscious of this truth, and is amazed at the very slight effort Americans make to understand or to be understood by their foreign born neighbors.

This "unknown America" would divulge the truth about itself more rapidly if persons interested in alien assimilation would avail themselves of facilities such as are offered by the Foreign Language Information Service. That service is in intimate contact with sixteen of the largest immigrant groups; it sends regular governmental and educational material to some eight hundred newspapers reaching these groups. For English readers it prepares frequent editorial digests of the foreign language press, a monthly publication of immigration interpretations and a series of informative releases to organizations and individuals interested in the foreign born population. Its business is to interpret America to the immigrant and the immigrant to America.

READ LEWIS,
Director Foreign Language Information Service.

New York, N. Y.

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Selectivity and Amplification

A STUBBORN prejudice against machinery and all its works is, in many circles, a caste mark of cultivation. Nothing argues more obviously and surely one's high-born exemption from all useful occupation, as Mr. Veblen says, than a serene incapacity in the presence of an ailing telephone or a halting motor car. No doubt this is partly a reluctance to be vulgarly efficient in dealing with inanimate matter. The proper study of mankind is mind, and the highest achievement of cultivation is not to control nature, as the handy-men of science say, but to rise above it to the purer atmosphere of speculative perfection. Happy is he who, when the crankshaft breaks, can quote Seneca to the point and take the philosopher's seat by the side of the road to watch with detached amusement the petty struggles of grovelling humanity to right itself. But this requires, at the least, a chauffeur whose part it is to grovel usefully underneath the oil pan.

There are times, however, when I think the chauffeur has chosen the better part. Mechanics has its philosophy. The broken crankshaft might serve a grimy Omar for many a ruminating quatrain on the uncertainty of life. Not only that: there is weltanschaung in the machine. The Ford car, for instance, is the universe reflected in microcosm. Made in six days, it runs forever, with a certain amount of tinkering from a benevolent humanity, though never so far nor so fast as one could wish. Indeed, the pantheists are doubtless right and there is a soul in everything. Recently I have discovered one, of all places in the world, inside the radio cabinet. The sounds which issue are uncouth enough; but within, delicacy and refinement are carried to the very highest pitch. To commune with the spirit you have to look inside, and even then decorum is necessary and the reading of the word.

My introduction to this mystery occurred by accident. A friend whom I could not disappoint possessed an ailing set which he blandly invited me to mend. It was just like that. "I wish you'd fix that radio set while you're here. None of us can make it work." This to a complete novice who had previously scorned the common thing for its incorrigible emission of gritty jazz and windy politics. There was no alternative. Some boyhood performance on an anaemic doorbell or a pyorrhoeaed lawnmower (one of the four!) had established an illusion of competence which nothing must be permitted to destroy. "Why certainly. Delighted!" And with no further preparation I entered upon two days of monastic discipline in the mysteries of the audion bulb and its attendant ritual. At the end I emerged and "fixed" that radio. Actually.

To tell the truth, though, I had by this time almost forgotten the utilitarian purpose of my exercise in the excitement of spying about inside the box. What, for instance, was I to make of the variocoupler? The whole principle of inductance was based, I had supposed, on monogamy: two coils that thrill as one. Here, apparently, was the Hollywood version of a familiar institution: the experimental union, a fresh exposure in the endless reel of synonyms for infidelity that is unwound across the silver screen: The Variocoupler, a Moving Drama of Marital Permutation. The Grid Leak would be, of course, a journal of erudition. This device is at its best when home-made, as follows. You take a little piece of paper and draw a pencil line across it with a substantial period at each end. You screw an electrical connection into each period. That is all. Whatever happens, if anything, comes to pass through the trickle of electricity along that pencil mark. The high-brow paper to a dot! But no; journals of erudition dispense with periods. The grid leak also is a continuous dribble across thin black line of graphite.

The really big thing about radio, however, is amplification. That, by the way, does not mean the loud speaker, which is only the General Dawes of the radio economy, as noisy as need be, but coarse and rasping, and generally unhooked after a brief trial. The essential amplification, on the contrary, is built into the machine. It occurs in stages, each machine being rated according to the number of stages of amplification, as school children are gauged by their intelligence quotients. Normal is about three stages; anything below that is feeble-minded, while a higher intelligence quotient classes one as super-heterodyne. It is a matter of native capacity, amplification. Some sets, crystal sets for instance, will not take any amplification. They are as God made them, as we say about the offspring of dubious parents, and like Professor Terman's barber must be adapted to simple tasks.

Within the field of amplification there are, further, subtle differences. Thus the audio frequency amplifier magnifies everything. No Chinese tailor, no stenographically slavish university student was ever more microscopically faithful to every seam, every word and every lamentable error. Has a thumb screw loosened? The A. F. A. gives forth a roar. Does one of the tubes wabble jocosely in its socket? The Bach organ fugue coming in from station WTV is accompanied by a contrapuntal obligato of creaks and whines all magnified to scale. But the radio frequency amplifier is quite otherwise. Taking its stand at the original sources, so to speak, it avoids the errors of secondary copyists. It selects only the essential wave length for development. Like the French conte, it suppresses unnecessary detail, conveying its meaning with a clarity that is almost chilly. De Maupassant is the beau ideal of R. F. A.; Tolstoy of A. F. A.—a central theme overlaid with all the groaning and squeaking of the loose machine of Czarist Russia. In radio construction, as in life and art, these leading principles, selectivity and amplification, seem to stand in eternal conflict. There is no achievement except by amplification; but how to amplify selectively? Selectivity, the essence of fine discrimination, is achieved perfectly only by the sacrifice of driving power. The highest art comes only through their perfect balance, selectivity *and* amplification, now and forever, one and inseparable!

The perfect compromise can be attained only among the stars where shines the light of eternal truth. There, where perfect simplicity conjoins with the most profound authority, the Logos may be pronounced with the precision of a watch tick and the thunderous majesty of the voice of God. Consider the Arlington time signals. The detector is set to the wave length of the local broadcaster. The local station is set to pick up the government wireless station at Arlington. Arlington is in a direct circuit with the chronometer of the Naval observatory in Washington. Washington follows the stars. Through them all there flows a cosmic rhythm. Tick—tick—tick—tick—pause—pause—pause—pause—CRASH! In tune with the infinite!

C. E. A.

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As Others See Us

American Social History: as recorded by British Travellers, compiled and edited by Allan Nevins. New York: Henry Holt and Company. $4.00.

IN his Civilisation in the United States Mr. Matthew Arnold earnestly asked of America that it produce a critical consciousness among its men of letters and scholars which would obviate a certain condescension in foreigners. At last, in the present generation, we have answered that plea with a vengeance: from Mr. Sinclair Lewis to the Thirty Americans who unconsciously adopted Arnold's very title we have considered the state of the Republic with the same ghastly candor that Arnold's contemporaries, Carlyle and Ruskin and Morris, exhibited towards Victorian England. Now comes a social history from the pens of British travelers, edited with unruffled competence by Mr. Allan Nevins. The lion has lain down with the eagle; they are both a little sick.

Mr. Nevins has followed up his excellent Century of Journalism with something more than a century of documentation on those aspects of our social life that came under the British visitor's gaze. These descriptions have a double advantage: they reveal the face of the photographer as well as the thing photographed. Mr. Nevins groups them into four periods: up to 1820 is the period of "utilitarian inquiry;" it is followed by "Tory condescension;" the third period, of unbiased description, bridges the space between 1845 and the 'seventies. From then on we get a higher calibre of observer—Arnold, Spencer, Freeman, Bryce, Wells, Muirhead—and, for the most part, a more perfunctory kind of observation—obviously, with the distinguished exceptions of Bryce and Muirhead, overgeneralized.

One need not stress too much these divisions and labels: Dickens, in the midst of the second period, did not carry aloft the disdaining Tory nose, and if his account of America has any great fault it lies in the cautious manner in which he confined the greater part of his observations to hospitals, asylums, and prisons, in a fashion that might carry the impression that the greater part of the population was incarcerated in those places. Moreover, if there is a steady development towards intelligent interest and unprejudiced description, the ups and downs of individual temperament must not be forgotten; the angle of distortion in Lord Birkenhead's comments on the American scene, or in those of a British Laborite who had seen only the vilest aspects of American industrialism during the last decade, is just as violent as it was in the case of Frances Trollope, almost a century before.

One must distinguish in all these accounts between the things represented, and the traveler's reaction to them. On the first score there is little ground for complaint: the notion that American life was conspicuously misrepresented by British observers simply doesn't stand. The Jacksonian American's resentment against these narratives too often arose out of the fact that the customs and institutions that were pointed to could not be denied. It was all right for Dickens to picture a London brutalized in Bill Sykes; he must not anticipate Uncle Tom's Cabin and mention Simon Legree. Why should anyone seek to escape the corrupt old world if there was already a corruption in the new one? Such descriptions undermined public confidence, lowered property values, and increased the difficulty of obtaining settlers for New Eden . . .

Above all, the old-fashioned American disliked criticism of America because of his fantastic notion that every reflection upon the American scene was a reflection upon the wisdom and efficacy of a republican system of government. As one of the most just of British observers, James Mackay, said: the American was indifferent to the land itself because he cared only for its political system and its flag; and this explanation applies to other things besides the land. As long as Americans held that their art, manners, science, and social institutions were but the shadows of their political government, an aspersion on any individual feature—from the habit of chaw-tebaccer to the monotony of the prairie—was an attack upon the sacred principles of his political existence.

Contrary to the common impression, the Civil War did not change the tone of foreign criticism; it rather altered the American's attitude towards his government. At the very moment that the realities of our agricultural democracy were undermined, the triumphant North felt that the political system had been vindicated and established beyond challenge. The kings of cotton had been beaten; "the feudal principle" as it was anomalously called had been driven out by the front door, and if it entered promptly through the cellar, under the leadership of the kings of coal and iron, that was no one's business. Politically vindicated, America was no longer culturally self-sufficient; the generation that grew up after the Civil War went to Germany to learn about education and the routine of scholarship, to France to learn about architecture, to Italy to learn about art. Since it no longer expected to find these things, ipso facto, in the land of liberty, it no longer demanded their recognition by foreigners. Ceasing to be a unique country, dedicated to a millennial principle of government, we have escaped half the sting of foreign reproval: is not Western civilization all more or less in the same boat? Our solecisms are trivial.

To return to the travelers. Do any general characteristics emerge from all these British portraits? Yes and no. That America is a land of relatively great material prosperity, that its inhabitants are in a hurry, that we boast an outward order and decency in sex, that we speak with exaggeration and sometimes with boastfulness—these are the sort of generalizations that emerge, and they are, on the whole, too disconnected and disparate to be significant. Perhaps the most thorough and competent observer of America, James Muirhead, the compiler of Baedeker's guide to the United States, called it a land of contrasts and by this he meant that no generalization was possible. The more thoroughly one knows a country, the more one is inclined to agree with this notion.

Take one of the points upon which most British observers are agreed: the freedom from servility and mastership in the relations between classes. The comparison works excellently between Southern England and the Northern States: it is precisely the opposite of truth when one compares Yorkshire and Georgia. When a traveler says: taxi fares are higher in New York than in London he is on legitimate ground. If he says that the democratic simplicity of America is revealed by the fact that the common American prefers a public conveyance to the private and luxurious taxi he becomes grotesque. It is hard to put a dividing line between these two kinds of

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description; for it is much more delightful to read a philosophic Munchausen than a pedestrian Baedeker. Yet the first kind, with its grand airs and its imposing omniscience, is so outrageously unfaithful to matters of fact that one is almost tempted to agree with Mr. Sinclair Lewis's point, in a recent discussion in the Weekly Westminster, and dismiss all comments by foreign travelers as impertinent and useless. Fortunately there is a good residue of factual observation, even in the most silly accounts; and if one washes the muck for gold, one will find it.

One more word about Mr. Nevins's compilation. He has taken the word social, it seems to me, in a somewhat narrow sense, and occasionally has emphasized customs and manners to the disparagement of other phases of our life, quite as interesting to the reader and more important to the student of history. Thus Dickens's letters to Forster, which Mr. Nevins draws on, are full of "human interest;" but his account of the early factory system in Lowell is a pertinent minor document, which should be given wide circulation. By the same token Miss Martineau's description of land speculation in the Middle West is both amusing and pat; it also substantiates the worst things Dickens had to say in Martin Chuzzlewit. Such things should not be frozen out. These are minor flaws, however, in an able and illuminating selection. I trust this book will meet enough success to justify a companion volume, dealing with travelers from other countries.

LEWIS MUMFORD.

For Commercial Imperialists

Our Competitors and Markets, by Arnold Lahee. American Business Series, Editor, Roswell C. McCrea. New York: Henry Holt and Company.

THIS work is intended as a text book for students who wish to prepare themselves for positions in our foreign trade. Its point of view is therefore frankly commercial. It is interested in any foreign nation only in so far as that nation may be regarded as either a competitor or a customer. England, for example, as a manufacturing nation, is primarily a competitor. Mr. Lahee sets out to determine how formidable a competitor she is, and how long she can stand up against our growing power. Germany and France are viewed from the same angle and treated in the same fashion. Argentina, Brazil and Chile, on the other hand, are customers and suppliers of materials we need. How valuable are they as customers now, and what may be expected of them in the future?

The inquiry, therefore, is a limited one, directed to an immediately practical purpose. There is need for books of the kind. The only questions about it worth raising are whether the job is well done or not, and whether the job can really be well done within the limitations the author has set for himself. Take for example, the commercial position of England. Every student of economics knows under what specially favoring conditions she became "the workshop of Europe." It is worth summarizing those conditions. Mr. Lahee does it with a fair degree of skill, although real economic history places the roots of British industrialism somewhat deeper in the soil. England no longer holds the relative rank in iron, coal, machine power, trained labor that she held in the period of her greatest industrial expansion. If the future is to be as capitalistic as the past England faces decadence. But it ought to be apparent to everyone that great changes have taken place, and greater changes are impending, in British economic life. Mr. Lahee's conception of England as a capitalistic community more or less impeded by a recalcitrant labor movement forms no adequate basis for a real forecast of the future of British consumption or production.

Over-simplified capitalistic assumptions also affect adversely the value of Mr. Lahee's forecasts of the development of Germany and France. Germany, he thinks, must fall back from its capitalistic high point because it has lost the ores of Lorraine. France will rise out of her decadence because she has in her iron deposits the basis of a great industry. This may all be true, but no one can safely affirm it until a much better survey has been made of the possibilities of the social movement on the continent of Europe. It has yet to be shown that French industrialism can create under the social conditions of today a personnel that will give her a heavy metallurgical industry equal in competing power to that of pre-war Germany. Moreover, it remains an open question whether the metallurgical industry will bulk so large in the commercial currents of the future as in those of the opening years of the twentieth century.

In dealing with the countries he regards as our natural markets Mr. Lahee appears at first glance to be on firmer ground. He is in a position to give a vast deal of interesting information on production and its possible development which involves no nice interpretation of social facts. His attitude is the conventional imperialism of the commercial attaché. Naturally he regrets Diaz in Mexico, who "had the wisdom to attract to himself the white or aristocratic elements of the population. It was with their assistance that he was able to bring his nation out of its chaotic obscurity into a position of security and soundness new in its history." But he made "one fatal error." The Indian "was left as he had always been, his slumbering discontent ever ready to be harnessed for the destruction of white civilization." Plainly Mr. Lahee has never heard of the tightening of the net of peonage under Diaz, nor of the kidnapping of the Yaquis for slave labor in Yucatan, to produce the sisal which "since the invention of the self-binding reaper has been found invaluable for tying grain sacks . . ."

Mr. Lahee is ardently for the extension of American control in the Caribbean. On the other hand no British Labor critic could be more severe than Mr. Lahee in his judgment of Japanese designs on China. What is necessary and desirable on the American continent, when it is advantageous to our trade, is outrageous and shameful in Asia when it benefits Japan.

It goes without saying that such extreme innocence in handling political and economic facts reduces the interest of the book for the non-commercial reader. It also reduces its value for the commercial reader. Our trade in Latin America will never prosper so long as the American commercial public entertains such simple conceptions of Latin American life and politics as Mr. Lahee betrays. Nor will our European trade prosper as it should so long as we conceive of the European industrial nations as nothing but competitors. They compete with us, but they also coöperate with us in building up the world's trade.

ALVIN JOHNSON.

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Two Celtic Biographies

Memories and Adventures, by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle. Boston: Little, Brown and Company. $4.50.

The London Adventure, by Arthur Machen. New York: Alfred A. Knopf. $2.00.

THESE two recorders of adventure are frequenters of the penumbra, traffickers in the cryptic and the occult. Both, properly enough, are Celts, Sir Conan being an Irishman and Machen a Welshman. Both, with equal propriety, rest their shadowy interests on the tangible, physical basis which is provided by professional life: Doyle relates the early hardships of a surgeon, and Machen records the indignities that were heaped upon him, too far beyond his youthful years, during journalistic experiences in Fleet Street. But beyond these points in common, differences develop; and Machen is the one who emphasizes them.

Sir Conan, having lived a full life in the world of men, with contacts numerous and with reminiscences as varied as comprehensive, endeavors to postpone his well-known psychic interests until his final chapter; but his "allegiance to the unseen" obtrudes on page 27, crops up at short intervals throughout, and is proclaimed, toward the end of the volume, to have come to absorb the whole energy of his life. But Machen, from the start, abandons himself to commerce with mystery, coincidence, evil and dread; and when mystery itself seems to weaken and fail, mystification is brought forward to take its place. He is satisfied with the atmosphere in which he finds—or has set—himself, and with the sinister oddities (often enough unwholesome) which that atmosphere yields. He is therefore impatient with the oddities of other men: with "pantomime-chorus fairies on photographic plates;" with the "amiable Conandoylery that is now in such fashion in certain quarters;" and with the sipping of "those synthetic whiskies-and-sodas . . . by the gates of the New Jerusalem." Sir Conan's book contains nothing in this temper. Perhaps here we may mark the difference between a success reached in due season and a success too long deferred.

Mr. Machen's little book—it has but 170 pages—calls to mind the versifier who sat him down to discourse on the composition of a sonnet: a line of recognition for the historic form, a second on the selection of a suitable theme, another indicative of the proper handling of the material, a fourth on the difficulty of achieved rhyme, and so on, until at the end of fourteen lines, the sonnet itself stood complete. "So I," as Machen remarks. He was reminded, while taking his ease in an obscure tavern of the Great Town, that he had promised to begin a book to be called The London Adventure as soon as "the leaves should begin to come out." The leaves come out for the trees faster than they did for the book: through several chapters there are impediments, postponements, divagations and varying phases of reluctance; yet in time the end is reached and The London Adventure stands accomplished. Of course what this essay means—following the explicit declaration in its earliest chapter—is this: "It is possible . . . that the real pattern and scheme of life is not in the least apparent on the outward surface of things, . . . but rather lurks, half-hidden, only apparent in certain rare lights, and then only to the prepared eye; a secret pattern, an ornament which seems to have but little relation or none at all to the obvious scheme of the universe." Though the book gets under way slowly, it grows better as it proceeds: let no one who is approaching this unique author for the first time give him up too soon. It is the reader already habituated who will perhaps sense the overworking of familiar motifs, and will feel that the author has begun to live on his own fat. Many pages drawn from note books give outline sketches of characteristic stories that have been written or remain unwritten: in either case they neither impede the flow of "long-gathered material for a sermon on the great text that there is wonder in everything and everywhere"—even if it leads the human spirit "into momentary contact with worlds which it is not meant to visit."

Doyle too becomes, in a measure, the victim of his past—at least to the extent that the jacket of his book bears a facsimile of the particular manuscript page which was the first to receive the immortal cognomen of "Holmes." It has long been suspected that the creator of the prince of modern detectives got little pleasure out of references to this manifestation of his handiwork; consequently one is not surprised by such a categorical declaration as this: "I believe that if I had never touched Holmes, who has tended to obscure my higher work, my position in literature would at the present moment be a more commanding one." A word, perhaps, for The White Company and Sir Nigel. Or, possibly, for The New Revelation and the Wanderings of a Spiritualist—since why need it surprise us if one whose eye is now fixed almost exclusively on the mysteries and promises of the Beyond should be inclined to minimize the earthy details of commonplace crime, however acute the mentality involved in its detection?

Machen shrinks back into the shadow, even when the sun is shining and all the leaves are green; but a good part of Doyle's crowded volume transacts itself in the open light of day. There are his travels in the Arctic regions and along the West African coast; there are activities among the Boers and the Egyptians and on the Allied fronts during the Great War; there are easy and intimate encounters with multitudinous celebrities, political and literary, both at home and abroad; and there is an elaborate chapter on Sport. We end by voting so active a man—despite the concerns at present engaging him—as "a regular fellow." Machen, on the other hand, chained to his dusky doorsteps, is the very special fellow who has an uncomfortable time in this life, yet is fairly sure of a very special niche among us after having left this life behind.

HENRY B. FULLER.

Missouri Realism

R. F. D. No. 3, by Homer Croy. New York: Harper and Brothers. $2.00.

A YEAR ago Homer Croy surprised those persons who knew him (if at all) as a professional humorist, by writing West of the Water Tower, an excellent, serious novel of small town life in Missouri. His new book is a venture in the same field. If it lacks a little of the freshness and vigor of the earlier work, it is still a robust, competent piece of writing which does not suffer by comparison with any other product of what has come

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to be the most extensive school of novelists in the country: those who reveal and disparage life as lived in mid-continent. West of the Water Tower was the story of a young man in a small town; R. F. D. No. 3 tells what happened in a year of the life of a farm girl. Josie Decker is a half educated, good-looking young woman, dissatisfied with the life on her shiftless father's farm, yet beating her wings in vain, ignorant of means of escape, and unable to use them if she had known them. She studies "fancy dancing," gets third prize in a beauty contest, nearly marries a young farmer of the neighborhood, and then suddenly elopes with a handsome city feller, salesman for a patent silo. Because of a series of accidents, the elopement is not followed by the formality of marriage; and after they have been living together for a week or so, the boy is arrested on the charge (of which he is guilty) of automobile stealing. The girl goes home to her parents, confesses the truth and presently has to add the admission that she is pregnant. From her dilemma she is rescued by marriage with another neighboring farmer, "Bush" Higbee, a rough and brutal Napoleon of the prairie, whose uncouthness is supposed to be compensated by his honest candor and innate fairness. Having long loved Josie, and having seen her snatched from him by the silo salesman, he is glad to take her despite the coming baby.

This synopsis, as unfair as such things always are, may serve at least to indicate the intellectual honesty of Mr. Croy's narrative. He has not prettified his Missouri. In fact, if he errs at all it is in the other direction: the poverty, sordidness, misery of the Decker household are rubbed in until the reader marvels, not that a million farmers move to town each year, but that there are any rural remnants at all. Against this background his characters are sharply and vividly drawn; the girl Josie, her failure father, Higbee the rough diamond, are persons it is hard to forget. If the book adds little to the knowledge of the rural scene which has been imparted by other writers and by Mr. Croy in his own previous work, it is a truthful and competent piece of writing, a credit to its author's desire to make an honest picture of a life which he himself evidently views with some repugnance.

B. B.

Julie Cane

Julie Cane, by Harvey O'Higgins. New York: Harper and Brothers. $2.00.

IT is no disparagement to the rest of Mr. O'Higgins's novel to say that the opening chapters are about as good as the opening chapters of a middle-weight novel could be. Arnold Bennett himself could not have put the color of human notions, emotions and absurdities more happily into a drab setting. The author presents Cane, a sallow unsuccessful grocer of Findellen, New Jersey. But he presents him merely to contend that all things are possible, for with a practised pen, which has yet the relish of first attempt, he plumbs the unlikely speculative spaces of Cane, and shows you the real man, the interior man, Cane the philosopher, the thinker, who reads Darwin while his wife complains from bed, who views the universe "scientifically" and holds the negligible human race in scorn. On Cane the genial early chapters dwell because it was he who gave Julie, his daughter, her notion of herself, who made her what she was, in other words, since for all practical purposes of life people are what they are to themselves. "You're all right Julie," he would say.

> . . . You'll get lots o' lickings in this world for things you never did . . . It's only the boobies who expect justice the way things are . . . Don't let 'em scare you. That's all . . . Your mind's your own. It's the one thing you've got to protect yourself with an' it's the one thing they'll do their best to get away from you . . .

Of course Julie understood that her father by sheer force of mind had raised himself and her above the herdish stupidities of "them." They were animals who used their instincts, not their brains.

Emerging from her "ivory tower of silence" above the grocery shop, Julie took her opinion of herself into the world (via Miss Perrin's school), and the world, mystified and put off, confirmed her in it. She found unreasonable things happening. But her father had told her that unreasonable things always happened. She was not surprised.

With the introduction of Allan Birdsall and his mother and the Misses Perrin, the book takes a more serious turn towards what is called a psychological novel. But it has none of the conscientious dreariness of what is called that. It is psychologically convincing without being psychologically self-conscious. The spinster Martha Perrin, with her trembling passion for Julie, is a precarious study; Allan Birdsall, especially in his devious unhealthy adolescence, is a daring one. But Mr. O'Higgins has a sense of humor and a sense of proportion; he has swallowed his psychology and digested it; it reappears firm and well-mastered in his credible characters.

The product of all the moods and motives of the book is Julie, of course. She moves from one situation to another with her mouth shut, for the most part, seldom revealing her mind but always keeping to it. She transcends, as the other characters do not quite, her author and his psychology. Even Mr. O'Higgins does not always seem to know the depths of her young reticence. He has written an accomplished first novel, with humor, lucidity and feeling; but more than that, he has created a heroine.

E. V.

Policies and Policies in Asia

Conflict of Policies in Asia, by Thomas F. Millard. New York: Century Company. $4.00.

THE American policy of assisting Asiatic peoples to fit themselves for self-government and independence and the European policy—which is to say, British, policy—of repressing them in order that accidental exploitation may be easier and more profitable—there lies the conflict as Mr. Millard sees it. His thesis is that the American policy must be established and maintained, by accommodation with Great Britain if possible and by force through our newly acquired strength if necessary.

There, indeed, the conflict lies, and Mr. Millard has accurately posed the problem of the relation of the white powers to the Asiatic peoples. But I am not so sure that Mr. Millard's premises of American purity are still valid in the light of recent tendencies. Our record in the East has in truth been singularly clean, but it may have been

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the purity of pre-adolescence. We were growing up, we needed all our energy in our own development. Well, we are grown up now. We have energy to spare. It remains to be seen how we shall use it. Such indications as have been given by some latter-day events are not encouraging. They point to the conclusion that American righteousness was an historical accident. The conflict as outlined by Mr. Millard remains, but it may be inaccurate to label it nationally, as American versus British, as who should say the virtuous and the frail. Let it be enlightened selfishness versus blind self-destruction, decent versus indecent or what you will, but not American versus European.

This is not to minimize the value of Mr. Millard's book. It maps clearly the lines foreign policy has taken in the Far East in the past and those they may be expected to follow in the future. There is no exaggeration in his emphasis on our Far Eastern questions as the first in importance in our questions of foreign policy. His position is indisputable. Irresistible forces have drawn this country to the Pacific and there its destiny will be played out. The problem focusses in China. There will be decided what the relations shall be between the white minority now in the ascendant and the colored races now beginning to challenge white ascendancy. If the words ceremoniously written in the Washington Conference treaties and innumerable treaties before them be clothed in reality, if, that is, China be given a fair chance to regain its sovereignty and consolidate it, an equal among the nations, Asia and the Western hemisphere can dwell together in amity. For a state of mind in the rulers of the Western Powers which permits this in China will accord similar opportunities to other Asiatic nations. Mr. Millard argues for that state of mind and cogently, though I believe he errs in designating it as American. For it will have costly consequences, costly in political prestige and material wealth, and Americans are no more stoic in the face of loss than any others. For that state of mind he argues, in any case, and, assuming that America already has it and will not swell itself out of it, he believes that if Britain can be won over, it will become the rule of action in the East. Wisely he is not over sanguine. He only puts the question.

NATHANIEL PEFFER.

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The New
REPUBLIC

The Public Elementary School

THE subject of the present Educational Section of the New Republic is the Public Elementary School in the United States. The discussion has been restricted in the main to the purely educational aspects of the subject—curriculum and methods of teaching. It has not been found possible to include at this time a survey of private experimental schools. The Editors of the New Republic take this opportunity of thanking contributors to the present series of articles.

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The Public Elementary School: Its Status and Problems

THE public elementary school is the only school for about three-fifths of American children. Is this school doing its duty? Is it meeting present-day demands? Is this large number of future American citizens being educated in our elementary schools in the best way and to the highest degree possible?

A negative answer to these questions is frequent. Certainly there is wide-spread discussion and criticism of our schools. That the American public is questioning its education may be a very healthy sign, but dissatisfaction and complaint will be worse than useless if they do not lead to constructive thinking and action.

What is the true condition of American education? What is the real situation confronting it? One answer seems clear. Our schools are not now equal to their task. We may regret it, but we must admit the fact. What is wrong? Again an answer is clear. The failure is primarily one of adjustment. The fault is one of lag. Civilization has rushed ahead in unprecedented fashion. The school has moved, but not fast enough. Between school and civilization a lag has developed. A new civilization confronts with a host of new problems and conditions, but the school conception and practice lag behind.

In what respects has civilization rushed ahead? In what respects does the school lag behind?

It is now a commonplace to accept the thesis that pioneer life has set the mould for American custom and thought. This gives the background for the present situation, the condition from which we are now moving. It is equally a common-place and equally true that modern industrialism is the one great inclusive cause which is so rapidly modifying our country. But a lingering pioneer idea and custom is not the whole of our lag. While less often considered it is still true that the intensely practical outlook set for us by our pioneer conditions was accompanied by a formally accepted intellectualistic philosophy,

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essentially static in character, inherited from our feudalistic forbears of the old world. The situation confronting the school is thus the arduous task of making over its pioneer outlook and practice and its old-world philosophy to meet the host of demands set chiefly by the rising tide of industrialism. The schools have done much, but much remains to be done. Meanwhile the demands increase. It is this lag that we face.

Are the complaints against our schools then justified? Some are, others are not. We confront in fact two lags and two corresponding sets of critics. The first and significant lag we have seen. The critics who recognize it perform a social service. Their criticisms are well founded. We must consider their suggestions seriously. The other critics are very different. Failing to see the real situation they regret that the schools have even tried to change. This is the second lag. These critics lag behind the lagging schools. Their complaints are ill founded. To these belong, it would seem, Dr. Pritchard and with him many others who complain of costs and fads and frills. A situation confronts them which they ignore. Eyes have they indeed but this situation they do not see.

How does the changed situation demand a changed school? What is the bill of particulars? The story is not new, but is worth re-telling. In general this. In the simpler life of those by-gone times the district school with its three R's curriculum gave a useful addition to life, but for the many hardly entered into its essential structure. The pioneer child was really educated in the pioneer home and community. Life was a simple affair and lay open to view. Merely living the normal child life brought enough of opportunity and responsibility to give a very adequate introduction to the normal adult life. The girl helped the mother, the boy the father. Each thus grew to adulthood seeing and feeling the insistent needs of that simple life. The essential industries were for the most part found either in the home or at most in the community. Food stuffs were raised at home and milled nearby. The raw materials for clothing were not only grown at home but in the literal sense manufactured there. The wider social demands were equally few and almost equally open to view. For these reading and writing were desirable but hardly essential. The needs for reckoning were but slight, little beyond what the average boy would easily pick up. So much for the curriculum from books. And what of moral character? In spite of possible religious instruction this was a home-grown product as truly as were the practical skills. Both were alike the all but necessary results of taking part in the all but universal work of the home. What the school furnished was then a little literary equipment, and that hardly essential as many saw life. Education came otherwise. Life gave it.

Now the times are different. Science and its lusty offspring industrialism have greatly changed things. Life is no longer simple, but highly complex. Business, social life, domestic and foreign political life, even the leisure time of life, demand far more from the individual than formerly. Nor is this all. Not only are the demands far greater and more exacting than formerly, but the opportunities for meeting these are relatively lessened. The home as an educative institution have given up one by one its many industries, yielding them to the factory, so that the modern child, especially the city child, finds his home very much less educative than was the case with his forebears. And this is so in many ways. He now sees no essential industry in its complete round as was formerly common. Bread may be baked at home, but the average city child has not seen wheat growing or reaped or threshed or milled. A few garments may be made at home, but no sheep or cotton or carding or spinning or weaving has he seen. But this is not all. Mere seeing, as important for understanding as that may be, is small in comparison with the outlook, insight, and attitude that formerly came from responsible participation in necessary processes. The modern city child may have a few household duties laid upon him, but the danger is great that child and parent will both feel these as artificial. Even at the very best the moral character educative effect is but slight in comparison with the effect got from seen-to-be-necessary participation in those many seen-to-be-necessary family enterprises of the earlier days.

When we leave the family for the larger community the educative loss is perhaps not so great, but still real. Common affairs, as subways, telephones, and motor cars, educate the child into how to use them, and such things are so numerous that much learning results, but the deeper and wider social processes are relatively hidden. Whereas in former times grist mill and blacksmith shop were open to all, the factory now says "no admittance." Even where children are allowed to enter, the processes are so complex and involved as to be unintelligible to sight. With no understanding of such matters appreciation is all but impossible, and social solidarity suffers. And it is (if possible) worse with modern government and political party management. These are so complicated that most adults hardly understand them. To the child they are repellant mysteries.

Thus with a wider and more complex world to enter and master, with relatively fewer opportunities to see at close range the workings of that world, with little or no responsible participation in those workings, the modern child presents a very serious educational problem. If this be not met, civilization will surely suffer. Some even fear it may disintegrate. At any rate the danger is real. In the judgment of most thinkers the modern school must be our main reliance. It must re-shape itself as best it can to supply for the modern child an educational institution and opportunity adequate to modern conditions. Home and church, rightly or wrongly, no longer meet the situation.

It cannot be too much emphasized that the task of the school is thus different in kind as well as degree from what formerly prevailed. Then the school's task was mainly to supplement life by adding the Three R's. Now the school must supply the most educative part of life itself. Then ordinary living at home and in the community, directed by insistent family needs, sufficed to give fairly adequate preparation. Now education will be tragically inadequate unless the school can see its newer and larger duty and re-make itself accordingly.

A nearer look at some of the conditions of modern life may bring out more clearly the respects in which the schools must change.

Science and industry have combined to create "the great society" with its factory production, its world markets, and its ever increasing urbanization. The products of industry satisfy the wants of man as never before, but at the same time call into conscious insistence ever new

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wants. Meanwhile the bigness of aggregation so overwhelms man as to lessen his will for responsible individuality. With man's wants thus alternately met, stimulated, and denied, with science constantly enlarging the sphere of its iconoclastic scrutiny, with press and pictures and radio spreading knowledge in undreamed of fashion, there arises a flood of criticism, and the hold of external authority, whether of government or church or creed or custom, fast loses its sway. We are thus nearly repeating the breakdown of the Athenian mores at the time of the Sophists, but with two important differences. Our situation is not only rapidly shifting as was theirs, but with us, because of increasing inventions, the shift promises to become even more rapid in the future. In this we seem worse off than was the bewildered Athenian. But more fortunate than he, we have in science and scientific method a surer promise of facing difficulties and solving problems than had even that capable people. As said before, the school must be our reliance for effecting necessary changes in the face of these difficulties. After home and church and community have done all they can *or will*, the school remains the principal agency of society for fitting the young to grapple with life. The school must ever remain the residuary legatee of educational responsibility.

What then are the demands on the school?

First for things, physical things. For the youngest child and continuing on to the end, we must provide an abundant acquaintance with the physical things of life. In earlier days no such need existed. Things were insistent everywhere. Inside of school, books accordingly then sufficed. Now unless we do take care, the child will starve for lack of varied sense experiences, for lack of manipulation, for lack of experimental and testing conditions. What cannot be thus brought into the school room must be seen in excursions. Education must proceed on a basis of physical fact experience. The school must now supply it.

Second for social life. To learn how to live our children must practice living. Morals and citizenship must begin from the first and must remain always a prime objective. The only way to learn to regard the rights of others is to practise in season and out a respect for the rights of others. The only way to learn to respect the common good is to exercise in many, many different ways a regard for the common good. Practise with satisfaction is the rule laid down by psychology. Build specific habits. Generalize from these. Practise the generalization until a broader habit is built. All of this means that the school must be a miniature society in which real purposing goes on with its real willing and real thinking, with occasional real clashes and with real responsibility. Purposing and responsibility are absolutely essential to growth of character.

Third for responsible thinking. The old school with its old-world intention of maintaining the established status told its pupils what to think. That they should think for themselves or think new things was the last thing it sought. But a shifting civilization presents ever new problems. Solutions made in advance no longer suffice. We could not, if we would, tell our pupils what to think. We do not know what problems they are to face, much less the answers to those problems. So the new school must accustom its pupils to expect novel situations, and to take the experimental attitude. In times past the thought demanded in our schools was mainly to understand solutions provided by authority. With the new school, thinking exists not to bolster up the old, but to lead the way into the new. History will be a study and criticism of how men have met and solved their problems in order that we may better understand and solve our problems. Science will more depend on experimenting and less on "doing forty experiments" laid down in a manual. Always and everywhere thinking must mainly be an adventure into the unknown.

If these things be so, what then?

1. We must have a new theory of education. Schooling must no longer be the mere acquiring of facts and skills to give back on demand at examination time. The new school must be the effort to educate for life through life. It must seek continually to remake life to ever higher and richer levels.

2. This means a new conception of curriculum. Mere conventional and traditional learning, however deeply intrenched in public esteem, must give way to really educative experiences. Everything accepted into the curriculum must be really practical, that is influencing life for good. Especially the new school must really build moral character. This can be done. It must be done. So the new curriculum will be no narrow or one-sided affair. The substance of the three R's will be learned, but the enrichment of life and the building of character will be the main objectives, the enrichment of child life and through it the enrichment of adolescent life and through it the enrichment of adult life—one continuous process.

3. And a new conception of method must accompany and bring the new curriculum. Many of the choicest character traits cannot be assigned or tested, but must be called out and fixed in a régime of natural child living. How to direct such living in order to call out the best and then to fix it, this will be the problem of the newer method, a method now conspicuous for its absence in those schools where children are driven in herds to acquire in formal fashion a mere formal pabulum.

4. These new conceptions mean a new and costlier school. Let us repeat the word *costlier*. Some among us must be made to understand. If education is to discharge its duty it must be better and richer than it has been. Civilization demands it. And this means that better selected and better prepared teachers must have charge, with fewer children to the teacher and better equipment. And all this means more money.

Our rural schools are, on the whole, tragically and disgracefully inadequate. Much of the country does not enforce attendance up to fourteen years. But this is no longer sufficient. The compulsory period must reach beyond the elementary school into the junior high school and probably still higher. And let no one question the intelligence of the great mass to profit by secondary education. The problem is the other way about: What kind of education will profit these young people? And this kind profitable to life we must give.

Is it worth the cost?

With civilization changing ever more rapidly, with problems increasing in equal ratio, with unrest growing among the unprivileged, with these things happening we must bring the school more nearly abreast of the demands which it faces. Not to do so is suicidal. The cost and effort are absolutely essential.

WILLIAM HEARD KILPATRICK.

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The Curriculum of the Elementary School

THERE are approximately twenty million boys and girls in the elementary schools of this country. The schools are trying to make intelligent and worthy citizens of them. The result will depend upon two things—the quality of the raw material, and the nature of the process. The quality of the raw material depends upon inherited traits, and home and other environmental influences. The school can do little to affect the quality of the children who are enrolled; but it can determine the educative process.

There are two factors in the educative process. One is the subject matter of instruction. The other is the manner of instruction. Twenty-five or thirty years ago educators were chiefly interested in the manner or method of instruction. The programs of educational conventions were largely devoted to discussions of Herbartian pedagogy, educational psychology, child study, the doctrine of formal discipline, of apperception, of interest, of self-activity, and the process of correlation. Meanwhile the content of the curriculum was expanding in both bulk and variety. The subject-matter of such general studies as history, geography, and literature has been greatly extended during the last ten or fifteen years. Freehand drawing has become a broad treatment of fine arts, including drawing, painting, modelling, history of art, and art appreciation. Music has become chorus singing, class singing, individual singing, sight reading, instrument playing, composition, study of technical terms, music appreciation, history of music, and study of composers. Nature study has developed into elementary general science. Physiology has become health study and general hygiene. If one looks for history in a modern curriculum, he will probably find it to be one of a group, called social studies, which embraces history, both United States and European, current events, citizenship (civics of former days, greatly enriched), and some elementary consideration of sociology. Physical education is no longer merely calisthenics. It is setting-up exercises, marching, dancing, games (indoor and outdoor) and athletics. Hand-work, industrial arts, and home economics have been added. And a variety of extra-curricular activities in the form of school clubs and organizations, such as orchestras, bands, glee clubs, debating, literary, nature, art clubs, etc., have grown up from a desire on the part of the teachers to give the children opportunities to develop self-expression and leadership. The following is an actual program:

Opening Exercises (minutes a week)	60
Recess	75
Arithmetic	225
Art	90
Civics	50
Reading (literature)	120
Technical English—	
Written	150
Oral	105
Spelling	30
Penmanship	60
Geography and Science	105
History	90
Music	60
Physical Training	60
Physiology and Hygiene	40
Home Economics or Industrial Arts	180
Total	1,500

This program is in actual operation in the eighth grade of a city grammar school of a progressive school system. Though variations occur in different parts of the country, it may be regarded as typical of eighth grade programs throughout the country.

The problem which faces the city superintendent is this: How can such a curriculum be handled so that each subject will receive adequate attention and be thoroughly taught? The answer is: It can't be done. That is to say, it can't be done, if the total time assigned to each study is to be devoted to recitations of the old fashioned type, or if the teacher is required to hold every class rigidly to the several time assignments. A rigid adherence to this schedule would require that all study would have to be done at home. That would be unfortunate, because in many homes there are no proper facilities for study. The light is poor; there are many distractions; and many parents are too indifferent or too ignorant to appreciate the importance of a quiet place and regular hours for study; and no home provides facilities for study as satisfactory as a well-lighted and properly seated class room or school library, where study may be done under the intelligent supervision of the teacher. The fact is, that in actual practice in the best schools much of the time which is apparently assigned to recitations is devoted to class exercises wherein pupils and teacher work together with open books or with apparatus solving problems and organizing material in such a way that assignments for home study may be reduced. The most valuable kind of a "recitation" is one wherein pupils and teacher work together for the solution of problems and the discovery of truth.

In many schools, also, such a program will be grouped, or organized into larger units. For example, reading, or literature, written, oral English, spelling, and penmanship will be grouped under "English." History, civics, and current events will be grouped under "social studies;" and physiology, hygiene, and physical education will be grouped under "health education." Such grouping facilitates the frequent redistribution of the time of the several studies within the major groups, according to the needs of the class as it progresses through the term. For example, one class might be weak in reading but strong in technical English, and another class might be weak in technical English, but strong in reading. Time adjustments for each class can readily be made within the total allotment of 465 minutes a week which the above program allots to English, so that each class may be strengthened at its weak point. But however skilfully this program may be handled by grouping, or by supervised study, or by the problem or project method of teaching, it is, nevertheless, too full and diversified for thorough mastery within the usual school week of five days of five hours each. There seem to be only three remedies: either lengthen the school day, or omit some subjects, or reduce the time allotments. Probably all three remedies should be applied. There seems to be no valid reason, except custom, why boys and girls of twelve years of age and upwards should not attend school six hours a day. In European countries both the school day and the school year are considerably longer than in America. Our five-hour day originated at a time when the school day was devoted

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almost exclusively to mental exercises, and before the expansion of life had brought so many subjects into the curriculum. Today, however, about a third of the time in school is devoted to such subjects as art, music, physical training, and practical arts—subjects which are both highly interesting and recreational, and which do not impose any appreciable degree of mental strain. It would seem to be greatly in the interest of the child if the school day could be lengthened so that the school work might be practically completed in school, and home study reduced.

Considerable thought has been given at different times to the question of reducing the curriculum in amount and in variety of subjects. Probably that is the first remedy which the layman would suggest. But there are difficulties in the way. The chief difficulty would be public opposition to the omission of any of the studies which have become incorporated in the modern curriculum. What omissions would the reader suggest? What would the general public omit, if a referendum could be had? There would not be any general agreement. Such referendums have been attempted, but with no results of value to the school. The reason is easy to find. The extent and variety of the present-day curriculum have resulted in a considerable degree from a succession of public demands, expressed in urgent requests from community organizations, and in many instances forced upon the schools by legislation. Every year new responsibilities are placed upon the public schools. At one time it is instruction in the harmful effects of alcohol and tobacco; at another time it is the avoidance of accidents on the highways; again it is fire prevention; again it is good roads; again it is preparedness; again it is international peace; still again it is instruction in the Constitution in accordance with a plan laid down by a legislature composed of laymen. All of these objects are worthy enough in themselves, but the question is, where will this tendency stop? Add to these demands the many demands for the observance of special "days" and "weeks," and to the mildly protesting schoolmaster it looks as if the chief concern of the public in the schools is to exploit them in the interest of outside enterprises.

As we examine the program which appears above there seem to be no subjects which are not necessary to the preparation of boys and girls for successful participation in the many-sided life of today.

In addition to lengthening the school day, an entirely feasible proposition, there is much to be said in favor of a considerable reduction in time allotments. Let us consider the program before us. Arithmetic is allotted 225 minutes a week. The same allotment is also made for this subject in this school for grades 4, 5, 6 and 7. That is, arithmetic is required for five days a week, forty-five minutes a day for five successive years, in addition to considerable time in grades 1, 2, and 3. Most educators agree that all the arithmetic one requires in ordinary life, if well taught, can be acquired in six years of daily recitations. There is a possibility, then, of reducing the time for arithmetic in the eighth year to ninety minutes a week to be devoted to a review of the essentials. Over an hour and a half a day is devoted to the several branches of English. It is possible to reduce this allotment to an hour a day, divided about equally between literature, and written and oral expression. The best spelling exercises can be composed of words used by the pupils in their written work in all subjects; and the most valuable writing exercises, provided formal writing has been properly taught in preceding grades, are the children's compositions. These reductions in arithmetic and English alone would result in a saving of an hour a day. In the program under consideration the allotment for practical arts (home economics or industrial arts) is very generous. It is three hours a week. This could safely be reduced to two hours, especially as an allotment of an hour and a half is given to art, much of which can be correlated with advantage with practical arts.

It is not necessary to analyze the program further. There are possibilities of reducing time allotments all along the line. This can be done in two ways: first, by reducing the amount of time assigned to several subjects in each grade, as suggested in the case of arithmetic and of English in the eighth year; second, by concentrating instruction on certain subjects in certain years, without continuing them throughout the entire elementary course. For example, the formal study of arithmetic could with advantage be postponed until the second year, or even the third year, and could be completed by the end of the sixth year. Likewise the essential parts of geography and of history can be sufficiently treated in the last four years of the elementary course.* Such a plan, however, requires superior teaching; because, if the time usually devoted to a subject is reduced, great care must be exercised to insure a judicious selection of topics, and more than ordinary skill must be employed in the presentation of the subject-matter. That means better trained and better paid teachers than the average elementary school employs. The tendency to enrich and expand the fundamental studies has doubtless gone too far in this country. It is of much greater advantage to the child to master the minimum essentials of a subject and to form the mental habits of accuracy and thoroughness than to cover superficially a vast amount of ground. Leading authorities on education have frequently asserted that all that is essential in arithmetic are the four fundamental operations with whole numbers, fractions, and decimals, a brief treatment of denominate numbers, or measurements, and the principles of percentage and interest applied to simple business transactions. This amount thoroughly taught will provide all the equipment in arithmetic that a man or woman of intelligence will require in the ordinary affairs of life. This can be readily acquired by a boy or girl of average intelligence under good teaching in five school years with five daily periods a week of thirty minutes each for the first three years, and of forty minutes each for the last two years. This would amount to a little more than half the amount of time alloted to arithmetic in the program above quoted.

Conservation of time is as necessary in the management of a school as in the management of an industry. A child's time in school is precious. For the large majority of children it will never be long—seven or eight years at the most. Only ten or twelve percent of all pupils go beyond elementary grades. For that reason, if for no other, every hour should be profitably spent. Length of time devoted to a subject does not necessarily ensure mastery. Twenty-five years ago Dr. J. M. Rice demonstrated by a series of investigations in the field of spelling that the schools which devoted the most time to spelling did not

* We are applying the term, elementary, in this article to grades 1 to 8 inclusive; although in many places the term, elementary, is coming to be applied to grades 1 to 6 inclusive.

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by any means attain the best results. He proved that the best results were secured in schools where the most intelligent and economical methods of teaching spelling were employed. Other important studies in economy of time have been made, and the results all point to the same conclusion—that considerable time may be saved, and a considerable gain in achievement will result from a judicious selection of topics, and improved methods of teaching. Unfortunately, schoolmasters generally have either not acquainted themselves with these investigations, or have not made use of the findings. We still find in most schools of the country an overgrown curriculum, excessive assignments of home work, and a lack of thoroughness in subjects where thoroughness is essential.

No aspect of education is giving educators more concern today than that of the curriculum. At the annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association in February, 1924, a special commission was appointed to make a thorough investigation of the public school curriculum. This commission has set for itself the task of collecting all the significant investigations of the curriculum which have been made during recent years, of discovering the general trends throughout the country, and of indicating reasonable quantitative standards in subject matter as a guide to those who may be interested in revising the public school curriculum. This commission is now at work, and the results of the first year's study will be published in the 1925 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. The members of this commission believe that, if their work is well done, it will be one of the most important contributions to the improvement of the public schools that has been made in recent years.

EDWIN C. BROOME.

Practical Revision of the Curriculum

A REVOLUTION in the curriculum of the elementary schools is now silently and unobtrusively taking place. For ten years it has been developing, and each year gives greater stability and momentum to the movement. That no mention has been made of it in the public press is due rather to the ineptness of schoolmen at publicity than to any lack of significance in the movement. The active principle in this revolution is the application of the idea of usefulness to the curriculum.

The public has always wanted useful schools; so, for that matter, have the schoolmen, but educators were helpless because they did not possess the technique for making a useful curriculum. In writing textbooks the procedure had always been for the writer to make a few changes which seemed to him to be necessary, but these modifications were without plan or system, with the result that the curriculum stood, and still largely stands, as the amorphous product of generations of tinkering. To make a radical selection and reorganization of the best in a civilization is not something that can be lightly undertaken or easily accomplished. Conferences and the pronouncements of those in official position are quite inadequate. As a matter of course armies of trained investigators with millions of dollars at their disposal are required for such a task.

During the past ten years the methods for determining what is useful and what is not, which the schoolmen had lacked, have been devised in part and are still in the process of discovery. Substantial results, however, have already been secured and what is more important, a body of trained workers is being developed to carry on the project.

The first subject to be renovated was spelling, which was selected because it was the easiest. The ancient speller of former generations had lists of words, many of which were uncommon, and all chosen primarily to conform to preceding lists. Some of the most absurdly useless words were eliminated from time to time, but the lists were not greatly changed from speller to speller, because the old lists had prestige to support them, and the modest teacher was unable to force his mere humble opinion to the front to the extent of tampering with lists that were backed by tradition.

The functionalists have broken with these lists. They boldly asked the question: "What words are people most likely to use when they write?" for obviously spelling is necessary only when we write. Then they proceeded to answer this question by investigation. They read, classified, and counted millions of words. Jones worked on 1,500,000 words selected from the themes of children, written in the schools of five states. Ayres collected words from such business and social correspondence as came to the Russell Sage Foundation. Cook, O'Shea, Smith and Anderson studied a huge number of letters of adults. Thorndike and his assistants compiled the findings of studies such as the foregoing. Then when this work had been completed, teachers knew definitely for the first time what words are most frequently used in writing. If they wished to select only the 1000 most common words the investigators provided them with the list. If, however, they had time to teach 2000 words, the studies provided the second thousand. And so on down, in the Thorndike list, for the 10,000 most commonly used words.

They have gone still farther. The mistakes which children make in spelling these words have been studied. The most difficult words and therefore those which ought to be most frequently repeated in the teachers' spelling lists are known. Specifically they are able to say that the most difficult word to spell is "which" and the second is "separate." In hundreds of schools these studies have been made by Buckingham, Pryor, Capps, Horn and Ashbaugh and others, and we now know with definiteness just how much more difficult one word is than another. Moreover these lists have been studied in the classroom to discover the optimal grade in which the words can be most easily learned. And finally, spellers based upon these investigations are on the market and in the hands of children.

Spelling has gone through the whole process of study, from use in practical situations to the textbook, in which the words are studied by the children. The new technique has transferred the principle of usefulness from the field of theory and conversation into the details of the subject matter. In spelling, for the first time, the theory of usefulness has joined hands with practice. The appearance of the first of these spellers marks the beginning of an epoch as significant and distinct as the discovery of radio or the transatlantic trip of the ZR-3. Improvements in spellers will come as a matter of course, as have improvements in air-craft and radio, but with the advent of the functional speller the new movement has arrived.

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Of equal interest is the work that has been done in grammar. Here, as in spelling, the function of grammar in the schools was decided upon. The investigators assumed that the only reason for the teaching of grammar in the grades was to help children to correct their errors in language. When, for instance, John forgets whether he should say "He and I went" or "Him and me went" the rule "The subject of a verb is in the nominative case" would, it was assumed, help him to decide which form is correct. This function having been accepted the investigators collected thousands of language errors of children. Meek, Thompson, Johnson, Randolph and others collected these errors in Michigan, Missouri, Pennsylvania, Minnesota, Louisiana, Texas, Idaho, Ohio, and so on, and classified them according to the rules broken. Knowing these rules the investigators were enabled to determine the definitions which it was necessary to know in order to understand the rules. When this task had been accomplished they were able to give specifications to the writers of textbooks as to what the grammar curriculum should be. Specifically, they were able to tell the grammarians that fifty percent of all errors arose in verbs, and that one out of six errors made was due to the confusion of "seen" and "saw," and so on. This material was delivered to the textbook maker and now forms the basis of one or more language and grammar series.

Arithmetic, similarly, though not to so complete an extent, has felt the influence of the new point of view. Thousands of problems met by mothers and fathers were collected by Wilson and others. Many thousands of sales-checks have been analyzed in department stores to find what arithmetic salespeople use. The mathematics used by machinists has been derived from a job analysis by Allen. The operations most difficult to learn have been studied by Courtis, Osborne, and others. From these investigations and others a very respectable beginning has been made in collecting and organizing useful arithmetic for the elementary schools.

Likewise in the social sciences have fundamental studies been made. Rugg and his associates have determined with great care the social-economic-civic problems of the present day; they have studied trends to ascertain which have permanence, and they have prepared textbooks which are being tried out in the classroom.

Other elementary school subjects have felt the influence of the new movement. Uhl has made studies in the literature most interesting to chidren; Fuller has studied the manual training processes that are necessary in making home repairs, while Struck has investigated the curriculum of the farm shop course that is based upon farm operations. In art and general sciences exploratory studies are under way. It is only a matter of time until the useful raw materials of the curriculum will have been determined, and although each generation must recast the curriculum the task for the next generation will be made much simpler by those pioneering studies.

Parenthetically it may be stated that the movement has not been confined to the elementary school subjects. Other projects are afoot in other fields. In vocational education a printing curriculum has been worked out upon the basis of the job analysis by Strong and Uhrbrock; Hawkins has done a model piece of work in the tile-setters curriculum. The reorganization of the curriculum for women's education is under way. A study of pharmaceutical education based upon the duties and problems of the pharmacist in his shop is nearing completion. A preliminary analysis of the duties and traits of secretaries has been completed as a basis for a curriculum which will teach them how to perform the duties of their vocation. What seems, to the modest schoolman, like huge sums of money is being spent upon these studies, but the social value of the work is so great that these funds are easily secured as rapidly as the public appreciates the significance of the problem.

Obviously, a technique for discovering the raw material of the useful curriculum will not solve all the problems of education. The teacher, the child, the objectives of education are factors with which the technician does not deal. The statesman and the philosopher have to define the aims and objectives of education. The bias of the constituency will influence the reorganized curriculum. In the social sciences, for instance, the reactionary may have one theory of the function of education and the radical a second. The new technique does not pretend to say which is right. Nobody can prove the validity of either. Each group will wish to teach its own doctrines, but the technician can make a contribution. He can, for instance, prepare the lists of social problems which confront this generation, and to the accuracy of this list all parties will assent, for problems are matter of fact. He can go farther; he is liable to collect all the solutions to all the problems presented by all men, no matter what their point of view; he can then turn this raw material over to the school to use as it sees fit. The conservative may stress one type of solution, the radical a second, while probably the broad-minded and intelligent instructor will present both sides.

The prospects for providing a useful curriculum for the children of this generation are very bright. The public, I am sure, will be interested in knowing that the useful material for the curriculum is being prepared in the laboratories and that workers are being carefully trained. The revolution is well under way and results will follow as a matter of course.

W. W. CHARTERS.

Personal Education

THERE are two types of educational experiment today. The larger group of experimenters is attempting to write a new curriculum in keeping with the changed conditions of modern civilization. The schools of this group aim to fit the child for the world he is to live in by giving him, along with the three R's all taught by modern methods, a knowledge of present-day social and industrial conditions. They have the sympathy and support of progressive university departments of education and the gratitude and backing of parents who want their children to have the best of what is new without sacrificing what is good of the old. These schools have been growing in number and in size for over a decade. They have developed much that is useful in methods and curriculum. Many of their ideas are being taken over by public school systems and have already begun to affect the national idea of public education.

A second and smaller group of experimenters is not

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only dissatisfied with the methods and curriculum of the traditional school but also with its underlying assumption concerning the purpose of education. They are attempting to reformulate the aims of the school not according to the needs of the future adult but in terms of the present necessities of the child while he is still a child. They do not regard childhood as merely a door-sill to life but as a valid part of it. They do not look upon the school years as a period of inactive waiting during which a child should receive instruction about what has been done by generations before and what he in turn is to do with his adult years when he shall gain admittance to them. This sort of purgatory of preparation does not fill the bill from the point of view of modern psychology which recognizes that childhood is not something the individual passes through and recovers from but is built into the permanent structure of his life. It is with some trepidation that I undertake to set forth the point of view of this minority group for there are represented in it all shades of dissent from traditional educational policy. There is however a general point of view which I believe we all share no matter how different may be the conditions under which we work and the methods we employ.

The environment of the modern school is one in which the child functions. The setting is not framed for the potential adult but for the child, today, tomorrow and the next day. This granted, the conception of education as being of the intellect soon fades into the background. First of all a child functions physically, then emotionally, and then intellectually. In the traditional school this order is reversed and therefore the child does not function at all. He is educated in the passive voice.

If, then, the new school is to take this off-hand view of the intellectual life of the child, what is education all about? It is not primarily a process of imparting information; it is not first of all a method of teaching reading and writing and thereby ridding the country of illiteracy. It is to provide situations in which a child can experiment with life, can express himself creatively, can orient himself in his own world. In fact the school is or should be a place where a child's physical and emotional energy may be released for his own purposes, where he can learn to act on his own initiative and take the consequences of his own acts. If a school can provide these conditions the young individual will then gain a sense of power over his environment. This aim is in direct contrast to that of the conventional school which almost unfailingly robs him of all feeling of power and control. So long as a child is docile and obedient, most schools do not inquire into his emotional affairs. The traditional school takes little or no interest in the emotional life of its pupils and therefore not only neglects but actually violates all the laws governing this motive force of the young human beings in its charge.

The child enters school from an intensely personal background. Everything up to that time has been done "to please mama," "not to grieve papa," "to keep the baby quiet," or in response to some such intimate appeal. At the age of six he dashes headlong into a big public school of two or three thousand children. He is fitted into a slit between a bench and a desk in a room with fifty others of his age. He must stand up and sit down with them upon command. He learns to shout in chorus certain sounds in response to certain symbols on the blackboard. "A" sounds "ah"; "b" is "buh"; 1 is one; 2 is two. When a bell rings he goes in; when two bells ring he goes out. If the bells ring long and loud and unexpectedly, he soon learns that that is a fire-drill and everybody hurries out on the street and the principal shouts things to the teachers.

So this is school. Beyond a certain confidence that it lets out every day at three and that Saturdays and Sundays will recur with a certain regularity he expects nothing of it. He has lost all control over his environment. He cherishes no expectations. He is like a fish in a shoal or a fly in a swarm. He has no sense of direction; no goal to strive for. His best chance is to succumb completely. If he is a normal child he succeeds in keeping up with the shoal. He takes home a report card every month marked A, B, A and makes very little trouble for anyone.

The kindergarten movement was in the beginning an effort to bridge the abysmal gap between the personal life of the home and the regimental life of the school. In part it has fulfilled this function but it has grown so big and so organized that the personal note is almost lost. When kindergarten is finished there still follows the cold plunge into the first grade. In turn an effort has been made to ameliorate this shock by introducing the Kindergarten Extension, which is a sort of amphibious class where the children play with Froebel's gifts for half a day and get regimented through two and two the other half. This again is a conscientious attack on the problem of softening the transition. Perhaps in time the Kindergarten Extension will extend and extend on up through the whole school. But, even so, this seems to be but an acceptance of the fact that at some point the child must surrender.

But no matter how gradually these sacrifices are made, how much the processes are softened, it is a false idea of education that aims to rob a child of his inner motives and to substitute for them impersonal authority. This mode of behaviour which is an unreasoning response to authority does not and should not carry over into the home or into life. School then becomes a sort of strait-jacket for the impulses and the instincts in which they atrophy for a stated number of hours a day. By this means both physical and emotional growth are retarded and intellectual development becomes routinized and unmotivated.

A few experimental educators are making an attempt to create a school environment in which children initiate, create, and function. If these schools have not yet grown large in size and in number it is not to be wondered at. In addition to the fact that new ideas take hold slowly, the task is very hard. This kind of school is much harder to manage than the traditional school. It is harder on the teachers, who must also create as they go. It is harder for the parent, who must take an active part in his child's education. It is harder even for the child just as a gymnasium is harder than a hospital. But in spite of these handicaps the new school movement is growing. In addition to the private schools scattered all over the country from Alabama to California, even such a big public school system as that of New York is making a beginning. It has started in a small way with a few classes in a large school. Selected groups of children are being allowed to initiate their own activities and follow their own interests.

The task of these new schools either private or public is to receive the child as he comes from home and foster his positive reaction to life. He must be allowed and encouraged to greet new situations with expectation and courage,

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to hope much from his day's experiences, and to trust the adults about him not to put obstacles in the way of his plans and wishes. If a child is given materials to work with and freedom from frequent interruption he is going to find it worth while to hatch plans and start projects. The materials that interest a child, that stimulate his imagination, are not copy-books and papers, pencils and pens, furniture screwed to the floor and blackboards the right height for the teacher. They want little chairs that they can move around, low shelves and cupboards, paints and crayons, blocks and clay, gay-colored fabrics, live animals and growing plants, books of different kinds, not fifty all alike. They like gay curtains for the sun to shine through and gay music sounding in the halls. They like the teacher to smile and leave them alone a little, to tell stories that don't point a moral. They like to feel that when the teacher calls she will tell them something nice and not stop them from doing something. They like to talk with each other and not have it called "whispering" as if it were a crime.

Out of this kind of setting for children of six and seven years of age there grow certain demands for definite instruction. They want to learn to read the books which contain their favorite stories. They want to learn to use the typewriter on the little low table. They are interested in the scales and the tape measure. They need to know how to use them for their own purposes. They want to sing and are eager to learn how. They will struggle endlessly on a mat in the corner to learn to stand on their heads, exerting for their own ends a control far more difficult than that needed to sit up straight and keep order to please the teacher.

"But are they only to do just what they please?" This is a question often asked by the visitor who sees children in such a school choosing their own occupations, the assumption being that when a child does what he pleases he always does wrong. But even doubting the assumption, the answer is no. The social control in any group is sufficient to preclude such a scandalous possibility just as it does in adult life. All of the children cannot use the typewriter at once, nor all have the favorite book. All cannot swing on the trapeze, nor all paint at the easel. The discipline that comes from facing such simple realities as these takes the place of much artificial moralizing. Social adjustments all through life consist very largely in learning to get what one wants and is legitimately entitled to share without robbing or inconveniencing others. In a school with a free organization these adjustments are a common necessity and an every-day experience for every child.

"But," the critics also say, "the children seem to waste so much time." In an ordinary third grade public school class every minute is utilized. The procedure is familiar or may be to anyone who cares to visit any public school. "Books out; first row stand; very good. Next child; sit down; read louder; first row be seated. Second row stand. Turn the page; first child. Books away; desks up; class stand; monitors open windows. Class face; hands up, 1-2-3-4; knees bend, 1-2-3-4. Deep breathing, in 1-2-3-4; out 1-2-3-4. Face left. Class sit; desks down; pencils out. Fold your papers down the middle. Write your name and date at top. First example —— Pass the papers. Desks up. Class stand. Memory gems. First row, stand. First child, first line. 'Up in a swing;' don't say 'swink.' Second child say it right; next boy say the next line ——. Desks up; class stand; take clothing. Close seats quietly; forward march. Don't speak in the hall." Then they go out and walk around the block for half an hour so another class can use the room. Certainly no time is wasted so far as the use of desk room is concerned. But what about the children?

In contrast to this is an hour in a class conducted by the method under criticism. It is the first hour in the morning. It is also a third grade. The children come in one by one. One boy goes to feed the fish; another examines his clay elephant to see if it is going to be damp enough to work on later; he wets the cloth anew. A little girl mends a broken thread on her loom. Soon the room is full of children. Several of them begin to arrange the chairs in a semi-circle. They converse as they assemble. Everyone is seated. The class "settles" and "Oral English" begins. They are hopelessly behind the regulation third grade already described which has well begun their day's exercise. They will never catch up. The pace of children is undoubtedly slower than that of adults. A teacher is unquestionably a more efficient organizer than children are. It used to take nearly half an hour for the class to "settle." Now it still takes ten minutes. In spite of this desultory pace, are these children wasting time in contrast to the first group?

In order to preserve intact the power to act from within, a child must be allowed to begin and to finish his own experiences as much as is socially possible. Moreover, he must be permitted to make his own deductions from his failures and successes. Children's feelings are frequently violated by well-meant guidance which may speed them up but deprives the whole experience of its educational value. All this takes time. After all a child's life is made of time. One of the realities the modern school has to accept is that a child's tempo is different from an adult's. Too much speeding up is a violation of the principle of growth. Therefore tempering the pace of a child's day to his rate of movement is a necessity for which one must sacrifice the number of activities he can undertake.

If the first few years of children's lives are devoted to self-initiated activities, to free use of their hands, their bodies, and their imaginations without much regard to what they learn or to the actual quality or finish of what they make, it automatically happens that their standard of performance goes up. Their intellectual curiosity awakes and they themselves begin to wish to be taught the technique of the work they are doing and demand the information that the traditional school is so eager to give them. Such children learn to read because they want to; they learn to reason because they have to; they learn arithmetic because they need it. They study literature because they are enthusiastic. They learn to sing and paint and dance because they have something in themselves they must express.

These things are happening in some such way to small groups of children all over the world. But how does this affect public education? The physical difficulties, the large classes, the lack of money are not the barriers that stand in the way. The real obstacles are in the minds of the educators. They do not believe that the physical and emotional demands of children are valid. And so the schools grind on, imparting information, instilling morals, and preparing children for a future life.

ELISABETH IRWIN.

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Fitting the Curriculum to Individual Children

SUPPOSE that as a measure of economy and ease of administration all clothing manufacturers should combine on a certain size of clothes, that size being based on the average size, as judged by storekeepers in general; and suppose that everyone had to wear these clothes whether he were long or short, fat or thin; and that those who were not the right shape and size for these clothes were disgraced as misfit people—we should have a situation as absurd, but not so harmful, as the traditional system of schooling.

There are, doubtless, certain things that every child should know or be able to do. But to expect widely differing children to learn these things with the same degree of thoroughness in the same length of time is to expect the impossible.

No efficiency experts have ever recommended trying to crowd all large people into average sized clothes, or hanging average sized clothes around people who are too small to fill them—the differences in physical size are so obvious. But until recently all children have been expected to do a grade a year in school, no more and no less, regardless of their varying capacities. For we have not, until recently, realized the wide variety of abilities possessed by different children.

The outstanding educational movement of the last two decades has been the measurement movement. We have learned to measure, roughly at least, children's native capacity for learning school subjects; and we have developed a technique of measuring, with a fair degree of exactness, the children's knowledge and skill in the various school subjects.

These measurements have revealed surprisingly large differences among children. Give an intelligence test to five hundred or a thousand school children in the same grade, and it will be found that their native ability to learn varies at least from 60 percent of the average to 160 percent of that same average. The mental calibre of ten-year-old children, for instance, ranges from that of the average six-year-old child to that of the average adult.

Give a reading test in any typical fourth grade, and there will be found children who read about as well as the average second grade child, and others who read as well as the average seventh or eighth grader. Spelling the same way—dictate a hundred words, suitable for fourth grade, and some child will misspell eighty, another eight and so on through the school subjects: arithmetic, language, history, geography—anything you please. These theoretically homogeneous children, whom we call fourth graders, are astonishingly different both in ability to learn and in actual knowledge.

Yet there are certain things they all must know, if they are to hold their own in the world. It becomes necessary, therefore, to reorganize our schools so as to fit our curriculum to each child's needs and abilities. Each child's education must be made to the measure of that child.

Right now modern education is in a somewhat perplexing dilemma. It has taken the children's measurements with considerable care, and has recognized how hopelessly ill-fitted to most of them are the present curriculum and time schedule. But the whole organization is built upon the theory of giving all children the same thing—of trying to fit the children into the ready-made school product. The educational workmen are trained to cram children into what we have, not to re-cut what we have to fit the children. All sorts of compromises and make-shifts result.

There are those who have said, "Let's have three sizes of education—extra-large, medium, and skimpy. We'll measure all the children and classify them into X, Y, and Z groups so that their parents won't understand which ones we consider over-size, and which we consider too small. Then we'll try to force all the X children into the extra-large kind of education, the Y's into the medium, and the Z's into the small." Of course it doesn't work very well—even though it may be a slight improvement. A child's intelligence quotient is a general average of dozens of mental functions; two children of identical intelligence quotients may be of exactly opposite types of ability, each being strong where the other is weak. The measurers average it all together to determine where to place the child. And anyway there are not just three kinds of children.

Other educators try to keep the great mass of children together, but provide special educational tailors for the "exceptional" child. The "average" child still must be forced into the "average" education.

But more and more it is being discovered that every child is "exceptional" in one particular or another—education must be made individual.

One plan of fully recognizing individual differences, and correspondingly individualizing the schools, involves the classification of the curriculum under two heads. One part of the curriculum deals with knowledges and skills of which everyone alike needs mastery. The other part provides for each child self-expression and the opportunity to contribute to the group something of his own special interests and abilities.

Under the first head come the common essentials—the three R's and similar subject matter. Every child needs to know certain elements of arithmetic, needs to be able to read with a certain speed and comprehension, needs to spell certain common words, needs to know something about those persons, places, and events to which reference is constantly made. Since every child needs these things, and since every child differs from others in his ability to grasp them, we must vary the time and amount of practice to fit each child's needs. Under the old régime, in the effort to give different children the same subject matter in the same length of time, the quality of the children's work, the degree of their mastery, varied from poor to excellent, as attested by their report cards. But, under individual education, instead of quality varying, time varies: a child may take as much time as he needs to master a unit of work, but master it he must. The common essentials, by definition, are those knowledges and skills needed by everyone; to allow children, therefore, to pass through school with hazy and inadequate grasp of them, as many must under the class lockstep scheme, is to fail in one of the functions of the school.

The part of the curriculum which should provide self-expression and group activities on the other hand is quite

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another matter. Here there is no common skill or knowledge to be mastered. Here each child may legitimately differ from his neighbor in what he gets from school. It is the school's job to provide opportunities for his special interests and abilities to develop. In this field, education recognizes the importance to evolution of the law of variation, and therefore takes full advantage of children's differences. The children must learn how to make up for their weaknesses by using the strength of others, and how to contribute their special abilities to the undertakings of the group.

Let me illustrate these two phases of fitting the curriculum to individual children by describing briefly the work in one school system where an effort is being made in this direction.

The public elementary schools of Winnetka, Illinois, have for five years been experimenting with education adapted to individual differences. In these schools half the morning and half the afternoon are given over to individual work in the common essentials. The other half of each session is given to group and creative activities.

During the time devoted to individual work in the common essentials, every child does his own job. If one steps into a "fourth grade room," for example, he may find each child doing a different thing. One is just finishing third grade arithmetic, another has begun fourth grade work in compound multiplication, another is in the middle of long division, while still another may be beginning fifth grade work in fractions. A child may be doing fourth grade arithmetic during one period, but a few minutes later, in the same room, be doing fifth grade reading.

There are no recitations. Each child prepares a unit of work, checks his results with an answer sheet, and goes on to the next unit. When he has done a small group of units—an amount of work which may have taken him three days or two weeks—he tests himself on this group. If he finds that he has mastered it, that this practice test is 100 percent right, he asks the teacher for a real test. This test the teacher corrects. If it is not 100 percent, the child practices again on the weak points shown by it, then asks for a retest. When he shows the teacher that the group of units (called a "goal" in Winnetka) is mastered, he works on toward the next goal.

The teacher, under this plan, spends her whole time teaching, not listening to recitations. She helps an individual here, or a group there; she encourages and supervises. She is about among the children as they work, not at her desk.

No child ever "fails" in Winnetka. Nor does one ever "skip a grade." If a child can do more than a grade's work a year, he does so—but he does *all* the work, without skipping any. The child is on a piece-work basis, not a time-work basis. He gets the habit of mastering each thing he undertakes.

During the half of the morning and half of the afternoon devoted to group and creative activities, the children are not working toward any set goals, nor are they tested. Going into one of the rooms during this part of the day, one may find the children dramatizing a part of their history work. Perhaps they are putting on a very informal impromptu dramatization, or perhaps they are preparing a more elaborate one which will be presented to the school as a whole during assembly.

The assembly is a sort of open forum. One day it may be a program planned by the children and entirely conducted by them. Another day it may be a business meeting in which all the local school affairs are discussed and worked out by the children themselves. It is interesting to see a third grade child presiding over an assembly of two or three hundred of her school mates, in good parliamentary form, and entertaining motions regarding such things as whether children should ride their bicycles on the playground, or whether snowballing on the playground should be permitted.

Every child in the Winnetka schools has an opportunity to serve on some committee. These committees manage all the student activities. They are usually made up of representatives from each classroom. They are sufficiently numerous to provide a place for every child. In one school there is a committee on assembly programs, a committee on care of school grounds, a committee on the care of plants in class rooms, a committee on the toilets, a committee on playground rules, and so on through the gamut of school affairs.

It is during the group and creative activities part of the day, that the Winnetka children have their field trips; that one room may entertain another; that creative work is done in art and in shop work, each child making the thing which he himself wishes to make. It is during this part of the day that the children issue their school newspaper, articles to which are contributed by children from the first grade up. The editing, type-setting, proof reading, and business management of the newspaper is in the hands of the seventh and eighth grade children, who carry a real commercial account in one of the Winnetka banks, and pay all their bills with checks.

It is during this freer part of the day, too, that children learn how to fit their interests and abilities in with those of others, to coöperate, to participate in the activities of the group. At such times they learn to merge their personal interests in the welfare of the whole, and to contribute their special abilities to this group welfare.

By providing flexibility of time for the mastery of common essentials and by providing opportunity for children to exercise and use their different interests and abilities, the Winnetka schools are adapting the curriculum to the individual differences that exist among children.

The schools of Winnetka and other schools organized along somewhat similiar lines such as the Delton plan, are beginning to point the way toward a re-organization of public schools to fit the individual differences which the science of education has found to exist among children. It will take years for this re-organization to be completed; new textbooks will have to be written; courses of study will have to be made over; a new generation of teachers will have to be trained.

Yet all these things are under way. Two or three textbooks for individual instruction have been published within the last two years, others are in the press today. People are reconstructing their courses of study throughout the United States, and many of them are attempting to find ways to provide for individual differences. Teacher training institutions are beginning to train their teachers for the new order. It is probable that during the next twenty-five years the reörganization will be completed, and schools everywhere will cut their educational cloth to the measure of each individual child.

CARLETON W. WASHBURNE.

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Financing the Elementary School Program

ELEMENTARY schools in the United States vary greatly in the opportunity which they provide for the children who attend them. In the more favored communities boys and girls go to school in buildings well adapted to school purposes. They work in classrooms that are well lighted and ventilated and furnished with adequate equipment. They are provided with libraries, shops, auditoriums, and gymnasiums. They have an opportunity for recreation on playgrounds surrounding the building. They are given thoroughgoing physical examinations at least once a year, and are in many cases provided with free medical and dental service.

In contrast with these fortunate boys and girls are those who live in the less favored communities. These children are often housed in unsafe and insanitary buildings. They frequently work in classrooms that are crowded, poorly lighted and unventilated. They have little opportunity to become acquainted with books, no possibility of experience such as is furnished in shops or libraries, and are dismissed from school to play on crowded streets, or to return to their homes without opportunity for recreation. Little or no attention is given to their physical well-being and worst of all they are frequently taught by teachers with little education and no professional training.

Some indication of the variation in the type of education offered is furnished by the cost per pupil in average daily attendance. A child may go to school in a village in the state of New York and receive an education which costs as little as $26 per pupil, or he may be more fortunate and attend school in a similar community that is providing an education which costs $272 per pupil per year. In the cities of New York state the elementary education provided may cost as little as $32, or it may reach a total of $104 per pupil per year. Similar contrasts are available for other states. In Iowa, for example, elementary education in one of the villages may cost as little as $15, while in another village it reaches $206 per pupil per year. In like manner, in the cities of Iowa the contrast is between $30 for elementary education as compared with a cost of $148 per pupil per year. The contrast in Illinois is between $38 and $123 per pupil per year, and in California from $33 to $259.

Education of the same quality costs more in very small elementary schools that it does in the larger. In an investigation recently completed for the state of New York, it appears that until an elementary school has reached a total enrollment of 140 pupils the cost of providing the same education as that provided in the larger elementary schools is greater. It is unfortunately true, however, that it is in these smaller elementary schools that we commonly find the least ability upon the part of the community to support schools.

If we leave out of account the rural schools, we still find very great difference in the amount of money made available for the children enrolled in our elementary schools in American cities. It is not uncommon to find one city which spends three times as much per pupil as does another city of the same class. In some cases the variability is even greater. A part of this variation in expenditure is explained by the fact that a very much larger percentage of the total revenue of the city is spent for education in one city than in another. For example, among the cities of from 10,000 to 30,000 in the state of New York there is one that spends as little as 29 percent of its total revenues for public education, while another devotes 62 percent of its expenditures to this purpose. In like manner, in the state of Massachusetts among these smaller cities the variation is from 29 percent to 40 percent. In Illinois the contrast is from 37.5 percent to 68 percent of all city revenues devoted to public education Similar contrasts can be found in each of the states of the union.

It seems reasonable to propose that in each of the states we define the program of elementary education which should be provided for all of the children, and that we develop a more adequate method of financing this undertaking. It is manifestly unfair to deny an adequate opportunity for education to some of the children of the state, while providing it for others. Surely all children are entitled to an opportunity to attend school where they will be taught by teachers who are well educated and with adequate professional training. If these teachers are to work to best advantage and if the children are to profit largely by their elementary education, libraries, shops, auditoriums, gymnasiums, playgrounds must be provided. This more generous program cannot be adequately financed in the poorer communities, if dependence is placed as largely as is the present practice upon local revenues. State responsibility for education cannot be satisfied by enacting laws requiring local communities to maintain school a certain number of days for children in certain age groups. The responsibility of the state as a whole for the support of elementary education must be acknowledged.

In most of the states some contribution is made from state funds to the localities in support of their schools. The difficulty is with the method of apportioning these funds. Frequently moneys are distributed upon the basis of the number of children in certain age groups. Such conditions favor the urban communities as against the rural areas, for it costs very much more to provide education in the sparsely settled regions than it does in the cities. A school of ten to fifteen pupils with one teacher will cost very much more per pupil than will the grade in the city school enrolling from thirty to fifty pupils.

Another factor which must be considered is the wealth of the localities or administrative units to which apportionments are made. As the situation is now, funds are quite commonly distributed from the state treasury without reference to the ability of the local community to maintain its schools. It often happens that the very poor community has a tax rate from ten to twenty times as large as has the wealthy community, and yet it may receive the same apportionment from the state.

It is entirely possible to measure the educational need of the local community as indicated by the cost of providing an adequate program of education. This need having been determined and a minimum standard program of education adopted, it is the obligation of the state to determine a method of support which will not overburden any community. This desired result can be accomplished, if upon the basis of equalized assessments a common rate of taxation is imposed, and the amount that any community is short after having levied this tax is provided out of

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state funds. The successful application of this method is dependent upon the measurement of educational need or cost, and upon a uniform valuation of property assessed for tax purposes throughout the state. Both of these requirements can be determined with a high degree of accuracy.

The more adequate program of elementary education which is assumed in this discussion can be developed without an undue burden resting upon the people. From the most recent reliable data available, it appears that in three out of forty-eight states less than two percent of the income of the people is devoted to public education. It is interesting to note that in the very wealthy and thickly populated states the percentage of the income spent for public education is relatively low. For example in New York, it is 1.18 percent; in Massachusetts 1.22 percent; in Illinois 1.36 percent; in Ohio 1.65 percent; and in California 1.84 percent. In the more sparsely settled parts of the country, particularly in the Northwest, the percentage of incomes devoted to public education is considerably larger. In Montana 4.41 percent of the income of the people is devoted to public education; in North Dakota 4.02 percent; in Utah 3.67 percent; in Idaho 3.43 percent.

In normal times we save approximately fifteen percent of our income in the United States. Various estimates are made with respect to the amount that we spend for luxuries. It is well established that a very much larger percentage of our income is spent for luxuries than for education. That it is possible to divert funds now spent for other purposes to education is indicated by the very great increase in the amount of money made available during recent years for paved roads. We have diverted from other uses the goods and services that have been required to construct these highways.

Similarly in the field of private expenditure during the past twenty years we have diverted from other purposes enormous sums of money for automobiles which are used for pleasure. This diversion took place at first gradually and has been accelerated during the past decade. More money can be provided for education, if we desire more education rather than other governmental services; or if we want education more than other goods and services which we buy individually.

In many of the states the financing of a more generous program waits upon the reform of the revenue system. Tax specialists have told us for many years that we are placing too great dependence upon the property tax. Sooner or later all of the states must accept the state income tax and the taxes upon business profits whether the business be incorporated or unincorporated. There have been cases in which the dependence upon the property tax and its increase to meet all governmental expenditures has approached, if not reached, the place where property is being confiscated. In the states in which these cases of unjust taxation have been found, it is not proposed that the people are unable to support their schools. The reform of the revenue system of the state will make it possible to finance schools and other public enterprises without overburdening the people with taxes.

The issue is really one of our scale of values. We spend our money for that which gives us greatest satisfaction. If we want more education and better education, we can afford to pay for it.

GEORGE D. STRAYER.

What Does Labor Want of Elementary Education?

LABOR is not some simple entity, wanting everywhere simple, specific things. "Labor" is a multitude—of men, women and children—of many races, languages and tempers—and with desires and aspirations about as varied as such varied factors would normally imply. Hence, one may not too lightly presume to say "what labor wants," or even to assume that labor itself knows what it wants. This is especially the case, in dealing with those mixed values generally called "education."

About its wants, labor is but partially articulate. This is an ancient, historic limitation. It was said of the workers in one nation of old: "Each becometh wise in his own work. Without these shall not a city be inhabited . . . (But) they shall not be sought for in the council of the people and in the assembly they shall not mount on high . . . They shall not declare instruction or judgment . . . But they will maintain the fabric of the world; and in the handiwork of their craft is their prayer." This "handiwork of their craft" is an eloquent prayer—not different from that of the medieval monks: "Laborare est orare"; but more likely, in those days, to "touch a heart of stone" than to come to the ear of the ruler, or to be heard by "whatever gods may be."

Within the last century labor has made great progress toward articulateness in certain respects. But "labor" still includes ranges of action, feeling and thinking reaching all the way from the levels of the still incoherent peon or "hunky" to the level of the industrial statesman who can measure wits with the wise and strength with the strong and not be put to shame. Who can tell what "labor" wants on all those levels?

Moreover, "labor" must not be too greatly isolated from "humanity." Labor wants what it has never had, as we all do. There is the story of the Russian water carrier who, having carried water all his days without complaining, died and went to judgment. His life in the flesh having been thoroughly investigated by the authorities he was admitted to Paradise and was told that he could have anything that he wanted. Confused by this sudden affluence, he considered the matter at great length, and finally announced: "I would like a hot roll and butter."

In many regions, labor is officially on record as to its wants in the field of education. In New York state, for example, labor wants a complete reörganization of the public school system, from top to bottom, inside and out. So the report of the education committee of the State Federation demanded at the 1924 meeting. But this demand may not be taken too seriously. That committee was dominated by a teacher—a member of the federation, of course, the delegate from the Teachers' Union of New York City; and the demand was much more the expression of the Teachers' Union than of "labor" in general. If proof of this be needed, it can be found in the fact that the report of the education committee of the American Federation of Labor, offered and adopted at the 1924 meeting in Portland, Oregon, asked for nothing

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more reconstructive than a general extension of workers' education. There was no teacher in the membership of that committee.

There are some things that "labor" does not want. For example, Mr. R. P. Farley, writing in the Locomotive Engineer's Journal, says: "From the most elementary class in the public school to the highest in the university it should be kept steadily in view that the purpose of education is not to teach the student how to make a living but how to live . . . Organized labor should use its influence to prevent our educational institutions from becoming a mere preparation for greater industrial production and for more money making or for military service, and to insist that education shall be primarily a preparation for life."

Some years ago, the Seattle school board set up certain so-called "industrial courses" in the seventh and eighth grades in several of the schools of that city. The children in those grades rather liked the idea of those new courses. But on the morning of the second day, the working-class parents in one of the districts descended upon the school en masse and volubly protested against the new plan. Their burden was: "We don't propose to have our children made into cooks and carpenters; we want them to get an education." This attitude was severely criticised by "educators"; but it is quite intelligible: parents, including parents of the working classes, do not want their children consigned to specific jobs in advance; certainly not to jobs that imply an inferior social status. Labor has no objection to jobs—as jobs, for men and women. But to seem to be consigned to a job, not by the economic factors of the adult world, but by the so-called "educational" factor of the school world—that labor protests and will always protest. When time and experience have determined that any particular individual properly belongs amongst the cooks or the carpenters, the logic of the facts will be accepted. But our schools will probably have to try to understand more clearly what they, themselves, are trying to do with their "industrial courses" if they want to make a convincing showing of their cause to labor.

This attitude of labor is not wholly to be identified with that of the "incipient capitalist" who wants his children to get an education that will insure their escape from working-class status. Such parents exist, of course. A brass-moulder in Seattle refused to permit his son to take any of the courses in manual arts. He said: "Look at me. I was educated from my mouth down. I'm a moulder; I make $1,500 a year; I live down on the tide-flats; and people curse me when I get into a street car with my dirty clothes on. I'm going to see to it that my boy has a different kind of life. He's going to be educated from the mouth up. Then, when he's through school, he can be a real estate man; he can make $20,000 a year; he can live up on Capitol Hill; he can have a big car of his own, and people will look up to him. None of your manual training for him!"

Some workers want this sort of education for their children, of course; but they came by this ideal legitimately enough. It's the great American hope. It's the Emersonian doctrine that "America is the other name for opportunity" translated into modern terms,

However, this ambition to become "realtors" is not universal amongst working-class children and parents. In fact, the most intelligent labor leaders and industrial statesmen are cold to this old-time "Americanism," though their indifference to it often makes them objects of bitter criticism. They seem to deny its validity, and to set up a different sort of reality—the "struggle of the classes." Now, "Americanism" of the reputable sort knows nothing of "classes" in America; hence, it refuses to recognize "the struggle of the working class for economic freedom" as having any rightful place on American soil. It's sheer impudence, an "importation from Europe;" hence, it is an insidious evil, which "challenges the continuance of our free institutions." The escape of the individual from a career of work is reputable Americanism; but since there are "no classes in America," all talk about the escape of a whole class, or the rise of a whole class to the status of "free and equal" must be frowned upon.

None the less, the most thoughtful leadership in "labor" today is trying to formulate the elements of an educational program of this basic and comprehensive sort—an education not primarily for the individual, but for the group, the class, the whole mass of the workers. That education will not prepare for escape from work. It will build toward the great ideal of "preparation for the efficient operation of industry." But it will go further. It wants the workers to become acquainted with "those basic social, economic and moral facts which determine human life and make it rich and full and vibrant, or flat and meaningless and insipid." It wants to develop "noble ideals, generous sympathies, and a profound understanding of the economic, social and moral questions that determine our human destiny." The elements of this program emerge slowly, often vaguely, tentatively, but hopefully; in workers' education classes, in labor colleges, in educational efforts of the trade unions, in experimental schools that are more or less closely affiliated with labor movements, and here and there, perhaps, in some slight measure, in the workshop, itself. What are the elementals of this slowly emerging program?

Labor wants, as has been intimated, the things it hasn't got, just as we all do. Labor doesn't know whether those things are realities or illusions; but, in its newer, realistic mood, labor doesn't greatly care about that beforehand. The worker, equally with other human beings, sees that the only way he can find out whether anything is real or unreal is by taking it into his experience, playing with it, working with it, finding out whether it meets his needs or fails him. Labor has listened to allegedly disinterested advice about the values of life long enough. It has little, if any, intention of taking such advice in lieu of actual experience, any longer. That is to say, labor intends to become definitively experimental. Of course, the "true friends of labor" will deprecate this determination. But the neutral bystander will see it as evidence that labor is coming of age.

Labor wants to understand the world in which it lives and does its work—and that for a very real reason. "Labor's supreme business," says one of its wisest leaders "is the reconstruction of society." Hence, labor wants, and wants for its children, a rational education, under the leadership of the most modern pedagogical practice. It wants its children to understand the processes which have made civilization what it is, and the processes which are working to make civilization of the future. Labor is not impressed by the doctrine, taught by some fearful souls, that its children are mentally

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deficient, and incapable of understanding the world and sharing in the thinking as well as in the work, of the human race. Labor wants to know, and wants its children to know, history, science, economics, psychology and sociology, but it wants these not as the innocuous and ornamental possessions of the "truly educated," but as the tools and instruments of intelligence, by means of which the past is to be understood and evaluated, the present is to be analyzed and faced and the future is to be constructed. Labor is struggling with the frontier forces and facts of life, and it takes its knowledge realistically, even tragically. Witness the way it has taken its Marxianism. Hence, it would seem the part of wisdom for society as a whole to help open and keep open the channels of free intellectual commerce between all labor groups and the frontier developments in all the sciences, remembering the sage remark of Josh Billings: "It was never my ignorance that done me up; it was the things I knowed that wasn't so!"

Labor wants a maximum of the education needed for its share in the human world; for common human happiness; for a share in the government—since political power is frequently so inimical to labor's welfare; for participation in world affairs, since labor is weary of making things to be destroyed in senseless wars, and weary of fighting battles that have no meaning in terms of its own intentions or ideals.

Of course, no one knows just what sort of education, if any, will assure these things. Educators do not know. Workers do not know. Workers have tried to make Socialists of their children, and have seen those children grow up to be haters of the doctrine. Educators have seen their own ideals defeated in the same inexplicable ways. Hence workers, along with educators, are turning more and more to the experimental in education for their guidance. Their moods are experimental. They welcome experimental ventures. They help to support experimental schools, where new curricula, new methods and new ideals are experimentally operative.

None the less, they do not intend to be deceived by pretenses. A bird in the hand is worth a whole flock in the bushes. With all their interest in experiments, they insist that the experiment shall not depart so far from the established order as to leave their children stranded in unrealities when their school days are over, or when the experiment fails and is abandoned. There is a realistic quality about the thinking of the worker in these matters that is quite disquieting to both the uneasy traditionalist and the over-enthusiastic experimentalist whose imagination knows no bounds.

For the worker wants his children to know how to read and write and spell a bit and figure some. He holds these things not unimportant, though he believes his children should get some other things out of their education, too. He wants the public school, if his children are there, to get on with the job, and give his children some real history and science, some honest economics and social studies. And he wants the experimental school to pause long enough in its efforts to develop the child's self-expression to make sure that that child will be able to understand other people when their time for expression comes; and that he will understand some of the uses of the world.

The worker has no objection to technical training. Indeed, he feels the profound need of technical elements in education. But he refuses to be fooled by the doctrine that his own children specially need to learn to use their hands. He is inclined to think that all children have this need, or that none have it. This attitude, for which the worker cannot be blamed above other men, is probably unfortunate, because it seems likely that the culture of the new age must grow out of the economic freedom and the industrial skills of the new age; and it is not unlikely that nothing more effectively obstructs the coming of that age than does the extreme intellectualism of our times, the denial to the hand of its rightful place in the building of the new world. But since most of us who recommend the culture of work do not mean what we say and cannot be trusted, labor is justified in keeping its fingers crossed when the subject is discussed. Perhaps the day will come when we shall all be able to deal with this important question honestly.

These then, are some of the things that labor, in its wisest moods and through its most far-sighted leaders is asking for: that education shall come back from the schools into life; that the workshop shall be a centre of education once more; that children shall find education and life, and not exploitation or repression, in both school and work; that something of the experimental mood shall find its way into all the areas of our living, including the workshop and the school; that the culture riches of the ages shall not be cut off from those whose work is tilling the soil of new culture ages; that the workshop shall come to be a place where skill can be secured and exercised without forfeiture of understanding of life and the world; and that the school shall eventually learn how to help children become intelligent without denying them the right to have joy in their work, or to join with their comrades in the task of making this world a place in which their ideals can have some chance of being realized.

So much having been said as to what "labor" wants of education, fairness demands some concluding remarks as to what education may properly ask of "labor." The schools are caught in the great drift of the academic tradition, and they can, on the whole, meet no new demands save as they get effective help from outside the drift. If workers want better schools, they must help to make a world in which there will be less drift and more intelligence.

The task is more difficult than most people assume it to be. It means the substitution of creative education for our prevalent schooling. All conservatives shudder at such an idea; they do not beileve in education at all—and certainly not for the populace. At most they believe in schooling. Even liberals doubt the advisability of such a program: they are turning, more and more, to eugenics for their salvation. The task of rescuing education from the academic drift and making it creatively free, while, on its technical side, a task of the teachers, is, on its social side, most likely the ultimate task of the workers. Workers were responsible in the first place for the beginning of our free public schools; it seems likely that they will be called upon, in the long run, to defend and to rescue those schools from the inertias of the drift and from the active forces that oppose them.

For these reasons, workers interested in education must not follow propagandists. They must see that the one lasting hope for "labor" is a general human advance—to which honest work with the hands and the head, straight thinking and a creative education are the ultimate clues.

JOSEPH K. HART.

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The Work-Study-Play, or Balanced-Load Plan

EVERYONE knows what Saturday night on Main Street in the average Middle Western town is like. A long dreary street, the glaring street lights exposing in all their pristine ugliness the five and ten cent stores, drygoods stores, shoe stores, drug stores, movies, etc. Crowds of people milling back and forth, moving slowly because there is hardly room to pass; groups of young boys standing on the corners or lolling against store windows. Everybody on the street and nowhere to go; everyone pouring out of homes seeking any cheap excitement that may come along as a relaxation from the monotony of the week's work.

If the formation of habits of discrimination in tastes and desires is one of the objects of education, then there are few things that are such an indictment of our present educational system as Saturday night on Main Street.

Last spring I was in Gary, Indiana, for a month. Gary is a Middle Western town. It is a large industrial center. There is a long Main Street. It is just like any other Main Street—but not on Saturday night. On my first Saturday night in Gary, I walked down Main Street. There were no more people on the street than on an ordinary night. Most of them were evidently there for a purpose, apparently finishing their week-end shopping. There were almost no young boys loafing on the street corners. Later on I went to one of the schools where there was to be a concert. The hall was packed. I could hardly get in. People of all ages were there. Middle-aged men and women, children, young boys and girls. Looking back at the people standing four deep at the rear of the hall, I was astonished to see that the majority were boys from fifteen to twenty years of age. The same boys whose football team joyously boasts that they have not even been scored against in two years. The concert was excellent. It was given by one of the school orchestras and the soloist was a member of a Chicago Symphony Orchestra. As I went home with some of the teachers, they mentioned the play that was going on at Emerson School, the dance at Glen Park, etc. And one of them said, "I have often wondered what it would be like in this town if we didn't have all these interesting things to do in the evening."

I had been in Gary ten years ago and I knew what an evening in that town was like when the schools were only about seven years old. What had happened? What were those "interesting things" that one could do in the evening? And how often? Were not this concert and this play unusual events? They were not. What I found was that in the public schools on *any* week day night I could hear a concert, or go to a play, or to a dance—which was like a club dance, not a school dance—or I could go swimming or take part in almost any kind of game or exercise, or see motion pictures, or study languages, or I could work in finely equipped chemistry, physics, or biology laboratories, or in shops, or I could take music lessons on about every kind of known instrument, or join a debating class or club. Furthermore, I found that *each* of the thirteen schools had practically all these activities going on every week in the year in its own neighborhood so that the people had these opportunities at their very doors.

And finally I found that the people were *making use* of these opportunities. During the one month that I was in Gary, there were over 18,000 people in the thirteen evening schools. Sixteen hundred and sixty-one were taking courses in chemistry, physics, mathematics, literature, or taking university extension work—girls and boys leaving high school in Gary can now take the first two years of college work in the Gary schools and get credit for it in the University of Chicago and Indiana University; 2,766 were playing basketball, swimming, taking part in various kinds of physical exercise; 5,054 were taking courses in shops with the finest kind of scientific equipment; 7,650 were attending concerts, plays, motion pictures and lectures in the auditoriums; and 1,623 were going to social clubs, parties, etc. In other words, there was an average attendance per school of about 1,400 people during that month. This is an interesting contrast with, for example, New York City, where the average attendance in all evening schools in 1922 was 125 people per school. Furthermore, during that month, in Gary, nearly 7,000 adults took courses in the *day adult* school which runs from 9 a. m. to 5 p. m.

The regular day schools in Gary are open from 8:15 in the morning until 4:15 in the afternoon. From 4:15 to 6:00 p. m. the playgrounds, under the supervision of playground instructors, are filled with children. In the summer the schools are open for the children if they want to come. And they do. About ninety percent of them come for recreation, and fifty percent come of their own accord for "academic work!"

The behaviourists tell us that the habit patterns formed in youth condition the whole future growth of the individual. It is not what a child is taught, but the *habits* of thought and action which he forms that are the test of his education. And the way in which he spends his leisure time shows the kind of habits he has formed. If that is true, then the Gary schools are meeting this test to an unusual degree. Habits of not loafing on the street, habits of vigorous health and clean wholesome living, habits of keen, intellectual curiosity and independence, the scientific habit of mind, love of beauty, habits of working and playing together—these are the habits which the schools in Gary are developing in their children.

Twenty years ago, William Wirt, the man who started these schools first in Bluffton, Indiana, in 1900, and then in Gary in 1907, said:

> It is of the utmost importance that cities be made fit places for the rearing of children. At the present time, the streets and alleys of the city have the children for educating them in the wrong direction for twice the amount of time that all the child welfare agencies have for educating them in the right direction. What the city child needs is a place where he can be busy all day long and every day, working, studying, playing in a good environment where the work and play and study mutually reinforce each other. Character growth of children cannot be forced by hypodermic injections of concentrated doses of scholastic subject matter. What is needed under modern city conditions is to create a real Child World within the Adult World of the city, where through a well-balanced program of work and play

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and study, children may live a natural, wholesome, character-forming life.

Well, he has *done* it. That is what my last visit to Gary made self-evident. He has created a Child World for children; he has actually made the city a fit place for the rearing of children. How has this been done,—and in Gary of all places, where powerful interests were in the beginning opposed to this enriched education for the children of the workers, ("What was good enough for our fathers," they said, "is good enough for the workers"); and in a city where the schools have always been hampered by lack of funds?

It has been done because the fundamental aim—to make the city a fit place for the rearing of children—has never been forgotten. The work-study-play school, as these schools in Gary are called, is not a scheme or "device" to relieve congestion, there never has been a congestion problem in Gary. It is fundamentally a project in social engineering, the purpose of which is to mobilize all the educational resources of the city so that all the children shall have the finest and richest education possible.

And it has been possible to carry out this purpose because work-study-play schools are operated on what is known among engineers as the *balanced-load plan.*

All progressive educators grant that playgrounds, auditoriums, manual training and cooking rooms, music, drawing and science are good things for children. But no school system under the traditional plan has ever been able to provide these facilities for all children. And the excuse given is that there are too many children. That is a strange reason, for we can have a great variety of activities for adults just because there are so many adults in the city. The larger the city, the finer the opportunities for opera, art, theatres, recreation—for adults. Why? For the simple reason that adult activities operate on the principle of "balancing the load." It is not expected that all adults want to, or should, do the same thing at the same time. Yet that is exactly the principle on which traditional schools operate. All children must be in school seats at 9 o'clock, all must go home to lunch at the same time, and all must be turned out on the streets at 3 o'clock. Every child must have a reserved seat for his exclusive use and no other child may use it. If there are 1,200 children in the school, there must be 1,200 school seats. If there is an auditorium, it has to be large enough to seat all the children at once, which amounts to providing an auditorium seat for each child's exclusive use. The same thing is true of all the other facilities in the school. When the children go to the auditorium, or playground, or manual training, etc., the class rooms are vacant.

And all because of the necessity of upholding the principle of "a seat for every child." It is an interesting fact, however, that this slogan is only sacred for the children of the masses of the people. It is the last thing which those who can afford it endeavor to provide for their children. Look at the advertisements of private schools in the back of any current magazine. What advantages do they stress to persuade the parents of the well-to-do class to send their children to these schools? "A seat for every child?" On the contrary, "finely-equipped playgrounds, shops and science laboratories, art and music studios, with the best known instructors in these lines." At present, the children of the rich have these opportunities and the children of the masses do not and they never will have them so long as schools are operated on the peak-load plan of organization whereby each child has to have a reserved seat and all children have to be in school seats at the same time.

The work-study-play school, on the other hand, is operated on the balanced-load plan as are other public utilities. Under this plan the idea of a reserved seat for every child is abandoned. Those operating these schools say there is no reason why some children should not be working and playing while others are studying, thus keeping all facilities in operation all the time, and so making it possible for all children to enjoy work and play and study every day. The plan of organization is as follows: Suppose that there are 1,200 pupils or thirty classes. The school is divided into two parts, each having the same number of classes and each having the eight or nine grades. The first part, which we will call the A school, comes to school in the morning at 8:30 or 9:00 and goes to the classrooms for academic work. While this school is in classrooms, the other school—B school—goes to the special activities, one-third to the auditorium, one-third to the playground and one-third to the shops, laboratories, drawing and music studios. At the end of one or two periods, the A school goes to the special activities and the B school goes to the class-rooms.

Under such a program only 15 classrooms are needed for a 30-class school. A classroom now costs about $15,000. Fifteen times $15,000, then, is released for the other facilities in the school, none of which cost as much as classrooms. The result is that under this plan it is possible to provide not only enough classrooms for all children when they need them, but also an auditorium, gymnasiums, shops, science laboratories, drawing and music studios at no greater cost than it takes to provide nothing but classrooms for the same number of children under the traditional plan. The same principle, extended, brings a maximum use of the evening schools, and also a full use of public libraries, museums, etc., all day long in coöperation with the schools. The accompanying chart illustrates the use of child welfare facilities under the traditional plan and under the work-study-play plan.

I began this article with an illustration from the work-study-play schools in Gary, Indiana. I did this because this kind of school has been in operation in Gary longer than in any other city, and, consequently, it is easier there to see the results of the plan. There are, however, sixty-six other cities with a total population of over fourteen million which have work-study-play schools. Detroit, Pittsburg, Birmingham, and Akron have adopted the policy of putting all their schools on the plan. After visiting some hundreds of work-study-play schools, I find they all have two striking features in common. In the first place, the flexibility of the plan is being proved by the fact that in each of these cities its application is refreshingly individual. Each city is using the plan to get for its children what they need. The second striking thing about all the schools, whether in California or Pennsylvania or Michigan or Indiana, is the attitude of the children—their independence, their initiative, their eager interest, their self-reliance. There is no question but that the children like work-study-play schools, and that, as Gary shows, the habits formed in them persist into adult life. The children from those schools will know how to *live.*

ALICE BARROWS.

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The Factory System

IN the fight for and against the platoon school, we are witnessing a deadly conflict between two hostile American institutions struggling for supremacy—the public school and the factory. One or the other must yield; there can be no compromise. The development of the child physically, mentally, morally and spiritually is the ideal around which the public school is organized. In industry the making of material things is the supreme and only consideration; the welfare and development of character is not even a remote consideration.

Either the public schools must be reörganized to fit the children for industry as it is carried on today or else the industrial system must find some way to utilize human productive power without wrecking the ideals, aspirations, and hopes fostered in the schools, by making of human beings mere automatons. Children who are given the outlook that the public schools give today are not fitted for industry as it is organized. The public schools do not train a man to be a part of a machine.

There is a nation-wide movement to limit school opportunities in order to cut education costs. It is supported by a powerful combination which may win out before the public is aware of what is taking place. Any scheme for cheapening or lowering the cost of education of the masses meets with the approval of this combination. The platoon school is such a scheme. At the same time the platoon school, with its high degree of specialization, is the form of school organization which best lends itself to the work of fitting the masses of children for industry as now organized.

The platoon school is a plan of organization of the elementary school by which from ten percent to seventy percent more children are enrolled than there are seats for in class rooms. This is done by "dumping" the ten percent to seventy percent on the playground and into the auditorium or basement, and by keeping all the children rotating from room to room, teacher to teacher, so that the same ten percent to seventy percent may not be kept waiting longer than thirty consecutive minutes to get into class rooms. Even the six-year-old children have six or seven teachers a day, and as many as twelve or thirteen in some cities. Teachers handle as many as four hundred different pupils a day, and a thousand in a week. A mother who withdrew her children from the Detroit platoon school writes, "These long lines of little children—marching—marchin—marching—looked to me like nothing so much as the lines of uncompleted Ford cars in the factory, moving always on, with a screw put in or a burr tightened as they pass—standardized, mechanical, pitiful."

Nine Chicago classroom teachers spent a week last December visiting the Detroit platoon schools and reported unanimously against the platoon system as detrimental to the children. A Chicago elementary prinicpal, who was a member of a commission appointed by the Chicago Board of Education and who visited the platoon schools in Detroit and other cities, said in her report to the Board, "The platoon school is a mechanical system of departmentalization for the elementary schools. It is exactly the factory system applied to the education of the child." The class room teachers sent by the Milwaukee Board of Education to visit platoon schools reported that the platoon school was unsound from the standpoint of health and hygiene because it over-stimulates the children to the point of exhaustion and offers greater opportunity for the spread of contagious and infectious diseases. These teachers were in agreement with the Chicago teachers, and both groups declared the platoon school unsound educationally because it emphasizes the teaching of subject matter rather than the teaching of children, and it breaks down the personal and motherly contact between children and teachers and tends to cultivate bad mental habits.

The failure to build schools during and after the war, and the continued high cost of building, have left most boards of education with a serious housing problem to be met with wholly inadequate revenue. Here again the school as an institution finds itself in another deadly conflict with another institution, the antiquated, inequitable, unenforced and unenforceable taxing system which continues to exist in every state in the union.

The boards of education find it easier to fall into line and adopt the platoon system than either to lead the teachers and the community, or to follow where the teachers are willing to lead, and attack the problem of securing the enforcement or revision of the taxing system. Boards of education are temporary, their terms are short; they are composed largely of citizens who have other, and to them more important, business to attend to. They are not disposed to enter into or to address themselves persistently to so difficult a problem as securing the necessary revenue to run the schools.

The lack of money gives the excuse for the organization of the schools on a mechanical basis. There are those who see that unless the growth and development of the public educational system is arrested it must and will result in a reörganization of the tax system. The same interests that do not want the tax system revised do not want the industrial system reörganized; and two powerful sets of interest are combined to push the organization of the platoon school.

It sems incredible that university professors, who recognize that the non-enforcement and inadequacy of the present tax system are responsible for the lack of school revenue, instead of advising communities to address themselves to enforcing or changing the tax system, recommend the limiting of school opportunities of children by the leaders in the communities. One of the most recent utterances of this kind from such a source is that of Professor Henry C. Morrison, Illinois Director of the staff of the Educational Finance Inquiry Commission under the auspices of the American Council on Education. In a study of public school costs in Illinois, published in 1924, Professor Morrison states the question very clearly when he says, "It is impossible to escape the conclusion that the development of a system of taxation more in accord with the economic organization of society is a condition precedent to the improvement of financial support of popular education in Illinois. If legislators prefer to wrangle over who should pay the tax and how much, they can doubtless do so, but they must choose between that and the maintenance of an enduring school system, as well as other public good." After stating that problem, Mr. Morrison runs away from it exactly as the board of education do and proceeds to attack the school

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opportunities of children. He says, "The issue is perfectly clear. There is no way to reduce costs so as to make the trend parallel the population trend except by lopping off the school enterprises above and beyond the elementary schools, wholly or in part."

The junior high school is the money saving device for lopping off three years at the top of the public school system, i. e., three years from the high school; the platoon system is the scheme for cutting costs at the bottom of the system—the elementary school. Both are acceptable to school administrators because they help solve their housing and budget problem. It is only the teacher who sees, knows, and understands the harm to the child involved in the platoon system with its inevitable lack of correlation and unity in education of the child and lack of opportunity for the influence of the personality of the teacher, the prime essential of character building.

To a nation that is fed on machines, eats, drinks and sleeps by their assistance, the evils of this mechanicalized system of education, the platoon schools, are too subtle to be seen and understood. There is a lack of any general understanding of educational principles. There is no intelligent, critical faculty developed so that they can detect essential weakness in a school. People take for granted that when children assemble in a schoolhouse, they have a school.

Honest, but superficial observers judging external appearances give glowing reports on the mass formations and the machine-like movements of the children in platoon schools. They fail to recognize what the educator sees—the factory system carried into the public school, which needs only the closing-time whistle to make complete its identification with the great industrial plants!

MARGARET A. HALEY.

Any School Morning

"SIT up tall—every one of you!" commanded the teacher.

Forty-six boys, ranging in age from nine to twelve, their arms crossed behind them, chests swelled to bursting, strained themselves against the backs of their desks.

The teacher regarded them fixedly until the last child was frozen into immobility.

"Arithmetic books—out!" At the signal, forty-six books appeared on the desks.

Begin at the top of page 47 and work examples 12, 13, 14 and 15. All except you, Nathan, and you, Davis, and you, Paul. You three go to the board and write down what I tell you."

"These dull fellows need a little extra drill," declared the teacher in a loud aside to the visitor. "I always say the dull child has as much right to be educated as the smart one. That means giving him a hand once in a while. Now then, boys, clear the board. Put down six million, three hundred and twenty-seven thousand, five hundred and forty-two. Divide by nine hundred and fifteen. Nathan, where are your eyes?"

The teacher's voice was hard and metallic and her face lined with a multitude of little seams of nervous irritation. Police duty is hard work, when it means keeping forty-six children caged and immovable in a tiny room five hours a day, five days a week for ten months a year.

For caged and immovable they were in a space measuring certainly not more than fifteen by thirty feet, a space completely filled by cumbersome desks at which the children sat, two and often three to a seat. Blackboards filled the front and one side wall, a clothes closet ran across the rear, and windows were on the remaining side. A few stereotyped drawings of birds labelled "Bird Week" were pinned to the closet doors and three posters, one of a truck, one of a street car and the third of an ambulance, all marked "Safety First!" surmounted a blackboard. In one corner hung a chart showing liquid measure. Next to it was a small supply chest. On the teacher's desk drooped three peonies at the point of disintegration. On the board in neat script were the letters p-e-o-n-y.

This was actually all there was in the room. In this cramped and arid space was not one thing to call forth the slightest creative impulse of the children who were doomed by law to spend the sunniest hours of their lives there. All they could do was to sit up rigid and "tall," while the teacher doled out irrelevant and uninviting bits of knowledge in the name of "education."

The worst of it was that four years of this kind of treatment had had its deadly effect on the children. They sat there, this spring morning, sunk in apathy, not one of them by even so much as a shuffle venturing to rebel openly against the accustomed régime. One boy, to be sure, instead of working his sums, was, under cover of his hand, scribbling a series of ciphers across his paper, and another was stealthily watching the meaningless performance in awed fascination. The three "dullards" at the board went through the drill with perfect precision. It was no doubt as good a way of passing the time as any other.

At the end of a quarter of an hour the teacher ordered the arithmetic papers to be collected and then announced with a show of liveliness that the class would write a composition about a trip to Central Park planned for the morrow.

The children brightened visibly. Here was a real event worth discussing. They waited cautiously however for directions as to how to proceed to discuss it. The teacher wrote the heading on the board:

"A trip to Central Park."

"Put that down," she commanded. Forty-six pencils wrote as a unit. Then the children waited again.

"Next, write in your own words all the things Miss Perkins has told you not to do on that trip." Not a child moved.

"Oh come," urged Miss Perkins, "you remember what those things are. Tell us one, Nathan."

"Not to knock no papers on the floor."

"You mean, to throw no papers on the grass. Yes, we must leave everything orderly. What else, Benjamin?"

"Please, we should listen on your whistle and come right back."

"Yes, nobody is to go beyond the sound of my whistle, and the moment I blow it, you must return instantly."

It was no doubt natural that Miss Perkins should be concerned at the prospect of conducting forty-six East Side youngsters to Central Park and back. All but one, she explained, had never been there in their lives, and all but three had never ridden in a street car before. Small

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wonder that she suggested a composition full of prohibitions.

After a sufficient number of these negative reminders had been given, the children set about writing them down. The task seemed more congenial than the previous one. To discuss a real coming event, even in the negative, was far more agreeable than to work arithmetic sums in vacuo.

The writing period was soon over, however, and the readers were ordered out.

"Turn to page 62," commanded Miss Perkins, "and read, sentence about."

The class relapsed into its former apathy. It had apparently read the story of "Iduna and the Golden Apples" many times before, and the theme was worn threadbare. The children rose mechanically and read the sentences in shrill, labored tones, chopping off each word with meaningless emphasis. A number yawned and squirmed miserably.

Miss Perkins seemed as aware as anyone else of the futility of the performance. Still, was she not as trapped as the children? Her time table called for so many minutes of reading daily and the course of study prescribed this particular reader. She must drive relentlessly ahead, in appearance only more free than the driven. She scanned her watch nervously.

"Time for music," she announced.

The class shuffled the readers out of sight and sat woodenly erect.

"Sit up tall," Miss Perkins said for the twentieth time that morning. "Make your mouths nice and round." She drew a little pipe from her pocket and blew "A."

"La-a, everybody!" Her right arm wagged through the air.

The class rose to its feet.

"Now then— 'Happy School Days.' Sing as if you meant it. Wake up, can't you? Some of you look only half alive. Remember, we must sing our best on Commencement Day."

Even so, the song dragged miserably.

"We'll try, 'Watchman, What of the Night?' next," The children responded drearily.

"Ready, sit!" ordered Miss Perkins. The class sat.

"Patrick, let us hear you recite, 'Robert of Lincoln.' "

Patrick, a wan, gaunt lad with tousled hair and a splotched face, came up front. He went through the poem at a tremendous speed, intensely eager to get the business over with.

"Peter, recite the same poem. Try to give it a little more expression."

Peter's notion of "expression" was to recite extremely slowly with special emphasis upon the lines, "Bobolink, bobolink, spink, spank, spink."

"Now, everybody, the poem over again."

The class repeated the poem in utter indifference.

"Next, 'The Mountain and the Squirrel,' John!" Miss Perkins moved to the side of the room. Half a dozen heads turned towards her.

"All those facing the side of the room, face front!" she ordered peremptorily. "Go on, John."

"One more—'The Fountain'—Thomas."

Thomas, thin and undersized, one eye twitching nervously, shrieked the verses in his tense treble. The contrast was cruel between his misshapen little frame and the words of the poem. "In-to the sun-shine full of delight . . ." he halted miserably.

"Go ahead," prodded Miss Perkins. Thomas stood his ground a moment in a desperate search for the next line, then crumpled into his place.

"Next boy!" "Next boy" began the poem at the beginning and ran it through successfully.

"Monitors, open the windows!"

A two minute drill followed, the children responding with exact military precision to the orders given. Every iota of expression had left their faces. Blankly, almost blindly they wheeled from left to right and from right back to left. They seemed in no wise like children but like wooden dolls moved by a master hand.

"Chests up— in—out—! Arms upward stretch— higher— down! Knees— bend! Left— turn— step! Form lines for marching. About face! Mark time— halt! Forward march— halt! Run in place— halt! Forward march— halt! Breathe in— out! Left— turn— to your places, step! Sit!"

The class sat.

Miss Perkins examined them critically. "Now that we are all freshened up and have our wits about us, let us try . . . the boys who have pens in their hands, put them down instantly! . . . let us try a spelling match."

This was obviously for the visitor's benefit. The children smiled feebly. "Henry, choose for one side, Patrick, for the other. Be quick."

The spelling match was executed without the slightest show of animation. The class seemed past any possibility of life. But as the big noon bell cut through the building, a shiver of expectancy went over the room. The door opened and a child entered with a note for Miss Perkins. Instantly a score of heads craned down the hall and one boy involuntarily thrust his foot into the aisle . . . in the direction of freedom.

"John!" snapped Miss Perkins, "you may stay after class for fifteen minutes." She began to count slowly, the signal for the children to get their wraps. Each row rose in turn, faced about and marched in dead silence to the clothes closet, got their wraps and returned to their seats. The other rows waited in an agony of suspense. When everyone had hats and coats, Miss Perkins gave the signal to rise. All, save the luckless John, fell into line and marched to the door.

"We shall stand here until every head is still," announced Miss Perkins. "The boy who has his elbows up, put them down." There was another half minute of anguished immobility. "Good morning, boys," said Miss Perkins finally.

"Good morning, Miss Perkins!" came the reply in a roar of spontaneity, the only sincere response of the morning.

Miss Perkins watched the line file down the hall where it was met by other lines, each presided over by its glaring guardian. Only at the downstairs door was vigilance relaxed, when the children burst out into the free air of the streets like so many exploding shells.*

AGNES DE LIMA.

* (The foregoing is an exact transmission of what took place during a visit to a fourth grade class in a New York public school last spring. Both school and class were selected at random, the visitor merely choosing the first school she happened to come across after going into an unfamiliar part of town. Save for certain notable exceptions, her notes would probably have been little different, no matter what school or class she had visited.)

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Enter the Superintendent

MISS HALE was interrupted in her opening exercises, 9.00-9.05, by the messenger from Room 8, second floor. Opening exercises at the Johnston school consisted of interruptions, attendance taking, and excuses, and in fact rarely terminated at 9.05.

Goldie Rosenberg—absent again—"Who lives near Goldie?—Solly, please take an attendance notice to her mother at noontime."—That child never will catch up. "Well, Henry?"

"Miss Hale, I live nearer'n Solly lives."

"He doesn't neither. I live on—"

"Solly will take it this time" . . . Abe Fenn out—and examination coming. "What is it, Thyrra?"

"Abe's ma gave me such a note"—

Abe Fenn he hav very bade tootake
he come by school seaftenoon.

Conrad Selewschy, reëntered. Mark R. "All well again, Conrad? That's good. Did your doctor give you a paper for me? Then you are required to see the school doctor."

Dismay for Conrad. Signaling from Olga. "He doesn't want to go. I'll take him, Miss Hale."

"Miss Hale, I know where—"

"I know where, too—"

Miss Hale's reproving eyebrows. "It's only to say you've been out sick. Olga, you may show Conrad the office," with slow distinctness to the little girl who watched her lips so closely.

Arrival of strange boy (cautious face of diverse possibilities) transferred from Tremont School. Mark A. Membership 50. Seats 48. Present 49, with new boy. "Take Abe Fenn's seat until afternoon. Johnnie Balskowsky, have you your excuse for absence yesterday?"

Meekly Johnnie proffered a bit of wrapping paper:

Madam Hale I could not to leave him
out the rain it could harm him.

Mrs. Balskowsky.

"Oh, Johnnie, don't you remember the duck's little red rubbers? Where were yours, Johnnie?"

"I ain't got none."

"Say, 'I have none, Miss Hale.'"

"I have none, Miss Hale."

Messenger from the office: "You should send Sadie Keminsky's sister to the principal."

"I ought to give that child some instruction in politeness—but it's seven minutes past nine—and the principal reiterating at teachers' meetings, 'Begin with the cadence of the bell'—Elsie, go to the office, please . . . "Sam"—left to stand ignominiously by the door, six times tardy—

"It stands," pronounced Sam, presenting his affidavit:

Mrs. E. Hale, will you please excuse Sam because the milk man brought the milk late.

Parents Kaufman.

Six T's in the report! And the superintendent had said: "Arouse the interest of the child so that he just can't bear to miss that five minutes of your presence. I know a teacher who reads a nice little story"—Um, much he knows about it. Hasn't taught school for forty years —"Sam, now this isn't going to do. I must send you to the principal"—The principal says she can't do anything —the mother has nine children and helps tend shop—

Adolph had finished writing his tables and was wriggling. Tina had finished hers and sat with her hands folded on the front edge of her desk—

It was here that the emergency messenger from Room 8 broke in stolidly, "Miss Hale, Miss O'Hearn says like this, the superintendent he's on the third floor now."

"Tell Miss O'Hearn I'm much obliged. Tina, come here, dear. Run into Room 16 and tell Miss Riordan that the district superintendent is on the third floor—and Tina—tell all of the teachers on this floor . . . Sam, take your seat. I'll see you at noon."

The superintendent for the Johnston School, District 4, Miss Hale knew for a suave, rather distinguished looking man, with a school-visiting manner as much as to say, "Well, here we are, an earnest little class under an admirable teacher, part of a great, free school system, in an utterly nice world." He was a personage you couldn't have come in to find Sam with his nose in the corner for being six times tardy, nor to hear the admirable teacher saying in emphatic accents, "Gustav, turn around in your seat and attend to your own business." While the district superintendent was in the building lessons were unimportant, examinations did not matter—nothing mattered but the harmonies. And little Miss Hale bethought herself, what more opportune time for a lesson in good manners? Should Miss Gertrude McMasters, the principal, on her visiting round, observe a lack of correspondence between the blackboard program and the clock, she would not this time call one to account. Miss McMaster's anxiety, like Miss Hale's, when the district superintendent was officially inspecting the Johnston, concerned harmony. A politeness lesson suited to practical needs. This was no time to instruct little boys in cap-tipping, nor to remind children to excuse themselves if they had to pass in front of rather than behind a person—which might result in ill disguised ruses to pass in front of the visiting superintendent. A politeness lesson it was which stressed proper behavior before company, with a warning that company might even then be on the way and the manners of every child in Room 14 be subjected to a glorious or inglorious test. So impressive was the young teacher's laudation of company manners that each pupil, and the teacher also, took out the best of such manners in his or her possession and laid them at his right hand on his desk ready to don at the first turn of the doorknob. And spontaneous was the ill suppressed groan when the opening of the door, which threw Room 14 into superior order, disclosed only Conrad Selewschy returning from the school doctor.

Miss Hale forecast it during the number lessons. The superintendent would come in with a beaming glance at the room—every child bolt upright—and pronounce "Miss Hale" cordially, shake hands punctiliously, and "Well, are we all happy to-day?"—"Oh, yes, thank you."—"Good morning, children."—"Good morning, Mr. Hendricks," part of the politeness lesson. Perhaps to a child or two a question or two; perhaps a word of commendation; and smoothly retraced steps. And Miss Hale would sigh, "That's over," and go on with her work heartened that Room 14 was found running nicely in its groove, and her page in the Doomsday Book yet white and fair. And at recess the teachers would meet in little

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clusters in the halls and question in undertones: "Where is he now? . . . Has he visited you yet? . . . What were you having? . . . Pshaw, you don't mind Happy Hendricks do you? . . . Dear, I wish he'd come and be through with it." She did not genuinely like the superintendent, for pretense is a bit contemptible even when rumor says that district superintendent Hendricks is having his troubles with the politicians "to keep his job," and it is rather jolly of him to go on with his pose that way. But she liked him in contrast with the previous fe-fi-fo-fum district superintendent, now happily transferred to the helpless teachers of District 7; and she was proud that he looked like any recognized professional man. She marked him in an invisible, unofficial, but very real Doomsday Book a mark of which he need not be ashamed. Mrs. Snodgrass, veteran, ruled that a superintendent who did not interfere with the day's work, nor unnerve the teacher so that she had to be restrung over night, nor stir up the principal into spending the following week in the scared teacher's room, ought to be marked a hundred by the teaching corps.

So it appeared that the mark of both Miss Hale and the district superintendent depended upon whether the spirit of perversity entered the head of one of the forty-nine erect exhibits during that polite five minutes of inspection or at a more fitting time. And this morning the perverse imp lit down in room 14 and hit upon the unsuspected Arthur, who looked so like a brownie and behaved so like a lamb. Perhaps the deferred turning of the doorknob, dragging from 9.09 to 11.24, with the intervening lapse of recess, gave the imp an advantage. For when actually was staged the entry of the superintendent upon the beautiful order of the room and the pleased surprise of the young teacher—"Good morning, children."—"Good morning, Mr. Hendricks."—and during the tranquil continuation of the reading lesson, smart little Adolph nigh to bursting under the approving nod of the superintendent, the possessed Arthur whispered. More than this, he whispered to Gustav, of hair-trigger instability.

Gustav glared upon Arthur; in a subdued and prudent whisper advised him to "shut up"; even restrained his hand from rising in appeal to Miss Hale for protection against the pest. But when the reverend presence of the superintendent had vanished smoothly through the door Gustav's sense of outraged company manners found expression. "He start talking to me. Said he didn't care for Mr. Hendricks. I told him to behave and he wouldn't. Said he didn't care for—"

Had the superintendent noticed the sorry behavior of Arthur and marked her down accordingly in the Doomsday Book? Young Miss Hale had not been aware of the whispering, but she had not been aware of anything definite until afterwards, and then only that she was standing tense and prim and still smiling. The sort of smile, she recognized, that she had once read in Emerson no brave man would be guilty of twice. But this last recognition was an undertow. The agitation of her mind centered around the disgraced Arthur, who had whispered before the superintendent. Sufficient proof of the limited disciplinary ability of his teacher. At the luncheon hour she told her woe to Miss O'Hearn.

Miss O'Hearn laughed. "You're lucky it was Happy Hendricks. Girls, do you remember that time that I planted Michael—one of the Raffertys—you've all had them, haven't you?"—unanimous groans—"right outside my door just in time for Fe-fo-fi-fum? You know he was one of those who said, 'There *are* no bad boys.' He struck first grade that morning and hung his hat up, trying to dodge the office and 'Gertie,' and catch us off guard. Otillie Anderson telegraphed, but seeing as she had only a tot for a messenger 'He's here' miscarried—Say, I had a session with 'Gertie.' The Johnston criticised! Enough said."

It was Mrs. Snodgrass's cue to retell, between her infectious gusts of laughter, how the primary messenger in the old days, bearing the cipher, "Johnnie's sick," had fallen into the hands of the real, head superintendent himself, and been directed by that reputed witty gentleman, "Go back and tell your teacher that Johnnie has recovered." Even Miss Morgan laughed. When Miss Morgan laughed the sound was a bit cynical and her mouth went a little awry. Little humor or poetry were in Miss Morgan's precinct; but reading, writing, 'rithmetic and grammar, t's crossed and i's dotted, and no "fooling," anathema for all shirking and slouching. Miss Morgan stood for efficiency.

But the conversation reverted to the district superintendent, staccato, double and multiple file: "Has he gone?" . . . "Did you know he was in the building?" . . . "Reading. My B Class. Such dummies, though I shouldn't say it." . . . "I'd like to know what help he is," from Miss Lowenthal, in her second year's assignment.—"What an idea!" faint snort from Mrs. Snodgrass. "Doesn't do any harm, does he?"—"Is he paid eight thousand a year for doing nothing?"—"For not doing any harm, honey. It's worth it."—"I have to work for my money." . . . "You! You're only a teacher." . . . "Ladies, I think we ought not to discuss our superior officer so disrespectfully." . . . "He's a gentleman—I mean—he's a little unusual—looking—for a school man," stammered Miss Hale . . . "They're a seedy lot, I agree." . . . "He hasn't any educational ideas, but who of them has?" . . . "Shepherd has," said Miss Daniels . . . "He *is* rather rattling the dry bones over in District 11, isn't he?" . . . "What does he do?" Miss Hale wondered . . . "Haven't you heard, child? Comes in just like folks, takes the class, demonstrates his ideas—yes, he has ideas—discusses them with you—doesn't make much of order—stays the whole morning in a room" . . . "And you don't die?" . . . "Die! They're crazy about him. If you don't like his way he waits. Thinks you'll wake up after a while. Honestly, girls, they say he's an inspiration."

"O-h—"

"Not a rubber stamp" . . . "Sounds like Froebel—or Pestalozzi—Say, you don't suppose those old chaps would get any where to-day" . . . "You're quite right, my dear, you're quite right" . . . "You don't think he might ever be transferred to District 4?" . . . "He won't last that long, honey. The parents are complaining that the children are not bringing home enough homework. He says children ought to play outside of school hours. Oh, he has a lot of new fangled notions and he believes in working them out with the teacher, converting the teachers to his methods or they converting him to theirs." . . . "Say, he won't last long. Roughing up the system that way." . . . "Catch Happy Hendricks starting anything. He's a superintendent, not a martyr" . . .

LEONORA PEASE.

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Education Moves Ahead

Education Moves Ahead, by Eugene Randolph Smith, with an Introduction by Ex-President Eliot. Boston: The Atlantic Monthly Press. $2.00.

An Experiment with a Project Curriculum, by Ellsworth Collings. New York: The Macmillan Company. $2.40.

Fitting the School to the Child, by Elisabeth A. Irwin and Louis A. Marks. New York: The Macmillan Company. $2.00.

Education Through the Imagination, by Margaret McMillan. New York: D. Appleton and Company. $2.00.

A Conduct Curriculum for the Kindergarten and First Grade, directed by Patty Smith Hill and compiled by Agnes Burke et al., teachers of kindergarten and first grade, Horace Mann School. New York: Charles Schribner's Sons. $1.25.

Home and Community Life, Curriculum Studies for the Elementary School, by Gertrude Hartman. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company. $3.00.

Then and Now in Education, 1845-1923, by Otis W. Caldwell and Stuart A. Courtis. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company. $2.00.

MOST people, it may as well be admitted, subscribe to the theory of infant damnation. They may not express themselves in theological terms, but that is what their principles and beliefs as applied to their own and other people's children in reality amount to. Children are naturally little liars, natural savages, natural outlaws. Children will not grow up fit and worthy members of society unless they are trained and disciplined and "the nonsense knocked out of them." Children certainly will not learn unless they are forced to do so. Indeed if they are not taken early in hand and taught by means of drastic penalties and rigorous restraints the knowledge that is necessary, if they do not acquire habits of obedience to authority and conformity to the moral law, they will raise hob with the world in general.

All this seems so obvious, that when it is proposed to rear children according to quite different principles, there is widespread consternation. The Old Guard—which is most of us—sees education,—and hence society,—headed straight for perdition when schools are established which permit children to develop freely and spontaneously along paths of their own purposes. Yet such schools are becoming sufficiently numerous for an inquiry to be in order to determine how great is the damage they are creating.

When such questions are raised, the Old Guard is in for a jolt or two. Children who are "let alone," who are not forced into uncongenial tasks and held to them by the lash of the schoolmaster, or by his black marks, are learning as well if not better than those in the traditional school; they are acquiring too not merely more general information and a vastly richer sense of the world, but they can read, write and do arithmetic in advance of their grade. As for the matter of "discipline," what happens when the traditional teacher turns her back or leaves the room for a moment? A riot, or a near one. In contrast, Dr. Smith relates what occurred in a class of nine-year-old children in one of these newer schools where the teacher was away sick for a week. The children carried on the work themselves, posting the day's program each morning, and organizing their time and activities as effectively as though their teacher had been present.

Dr. Smith puts the case for progressive schools extremely well. He is neither original nor very profound, but he is lucid, robust and intelligent. As founder of one progressive school—the Park School in Baltimore—present headmaster of another, and expert advisor to a number of others, he speaks from a background of wide experiences. The best chapters in the book perhaps are "When I Was a Child," "Interest and School work," and "Studying the Individual." There is a good description of the new methods of teaching reading whereby the child learns to read silently by the eye, rather than orally and by the ear. One cannot but regret that so intelligent an educator should give such unqualified support to the use of games and devices as teaching aids, and should also favor the stimulation of the competitive instinct. Games and devices may be occasionally used to advantage, but they are after all mere sugar coating to coercion.

This does not mean that coercion is abandoned in these newer schools, but rather that it springs from the impelling quality of the enterprise in which the children are engaged, instead of being imposed by the teacher. The project executed by the pupils in the rural school in Missouri, where Dr. Collings carried on his experiment for four years, demanded a degree of painstaking attention to detail seldom required in ordinary school tasks. The sanitary survey of the causes of typhoid in a neighbor's home with its resultant report, accompanied by models of a fly trap and garbage pail constructed by the children involved far more labor than a regulation lesson. So did the community fair, the public debate on the League of Nations and a host of other undertakings too numerous to mention. Dr. Colling's book is significant not only for the concrete and vivid description of the projects in which his pupils were engaged, but because it includes striking evidence that children, under such a regime, acquire the "common facts and skills"—the three R's—better than in the traditional school. Standardized tests in the ordinary school subjects, given to these children, and also to those in two schools of approximately the same size in the county who followed the state course of study, showed conclusively that the experimental school made by far the better showing. Not only did the children of the experimental school master the three R's more thoroughly and in a shorter time, but there were many other gains as well. County records showed that enrollment and attendance rose to a point well nigh perfect; tardiness and punishment dropped to practical zero; the number to go on to high school greatly increased. All the while the neighboring schools maintained their same low level in these respects. Moreover the experimental school reacted favorably on the community. More and better periodicals, more and better books found their way into the homes. Conveniences were installed, illness from preventable disease decreased. As Prof. Kilpatrick points out in his interesting introduction, "It can no longer be said that the theory won't work. It has worked. A régime of child purposing is feasible. We can lay aside school subjects as such and succeed—and succeed admirably."

There will be sceptics of course who will claim that what is possible in a rural school with its handful of pupils can scarcely be applied to a large city school whose enrollment runs up into the thousands. Yet important steps

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in modifying the curriculum and in discovering the needs of individual children through psychological tests have been under way for years in one of the most congested schools on New York's East Side. The account of the experiment which is given by Miss Irwin and Mr. Marks is in welcome contrast to the dreary reports multiplying elsewhere of the results of classifying children by means of mental tests. The special classes for the ungraded or mentally deficient pupils, for the dull normal, for the gifted, and for the neurotic instead of becoming mere dumping grounds for difficult problems, were made the means for testing out important educational theories. The chapter on the course of study is a helpful summary of the modern viewpoint and ends thus: "What education chiefly needs is that we shall take more for granted in regard to the child's intellectual development and take more thought about teaching him the art of happy and productive living."

This may also be said to be the thesis of Margaret McMillan's little book, which is an eloquent plea for the preservation of the imagination, so active in the early stages of childhood. No one is more sympathetically aware than Miss McMillan of the precious possibilities of childhood, and this present volume, although slighter in content than her former delightful work on Nursery Schools, combines the same warmth of insight and shrewd wisdom that characterized her earlier writing.

Now that modern psychology has taught us of the fundamental importance of this period, attention to the earliest years is engaging the efforts of an increasing number of educators. Miss Patty Hill whose work has done so much to shape the development of kindergarten education throughout the country, has recently, with her staff of associates at the Horace Mann School, applied the principles of behaviorism to a curriculum for the kindergarten and first grade. Earlier in the study, Miss Hill and several hundred leaders in kindergarten and primary education made an inventory of the specific habits which the majority agreed young children should form. As this inventory was used, Miss Hill reports that the teachers began to think of all instruction in terms of desirable changes in thought, feeling or conduct. "Thus the proper conduct of the three R's became as evident as the so-called moral or social conduct." In the present monograph, typical activities are listed, accompanied by a summery of the desirable changes in thought, feeling and conduct which it is sought to bring about. It is no part of Miss Hill's purpose to have habits taught arbitrarily, separated from the social situations which give rise to the necessity for their formation. Nor must the objectives set up curtail the child's opportunity for iniative and originality. Unless these principles are borne constantly in mind however, there is danger that the moralists and routineers will use the book as a means of imposing standards of conduct, more or less foreign to the child's own nature. For example the following seems to be entirely an adult's conception of how a child should feel when preparing for Christmas: "discriminating in giving toys to poor children; feeling of Spirit of Christmas; discrimination in selecting toys and unselfishness in giving up own toys, joy in sharing; gaining feeling of joy, wonder and awe through celebration; enjoying fragrance of tree."

Miss Hartman's proposal for regenerating society consists in educating the future citizen "for intelligent participation in a social democracy." To her social democracy is "that last fine flower of evolution" which can only be made to "flourish upon the earth" when we shall all come to have "an intelligent understanding of our relationship to the processes with which our daily lives are concerned." Accordingly the school "must set up an environment which requires social coöperation" and select from among the child's activities "those which hold the greatest promise as a preparation for the social responsibilities of adult life." Her book is mainly a reading guide to supply appropriate source material to the teacher who wishes to follow a curriculum based upon Miss Hartman's social objectives. There are outlines for the study of food, clothing, shelter, transportation, communication and the other elements of our economic and social life. The material is good so far as it goes, but one must seriously doubt whether acquaintance with the mechanics of civilization, even if acquired young, will usher in the millennium.

There are plenty of members of the Old Guard who will tell us that the millennium was a century or two ago. Young people are not being educated in the thorough and sturdy fashion of olden days. Unhappily for such cherished beliefs, the yellowed sheets of a report on the Boston schools written in 1845, which contained examinations and tests given in that year, were discovered not long ago. The contents of this report, which had been run in full in the Common School Journal by Horace Mann, proved of unusual value, and stimulated further inquiry into the kind of text books then in use, details of organization and administration of the schools of that time. It thus became possible to compare school conditions of seventy-five years ago with the present.

The results of this comparative study are well presented by Dr. Caldwell, director of the Lincoln School and Dr. Courtis, Dean of Detroit Teachers College. We have, the authors say, made wonderful progress since 1845. "Conditions have changed so profoundly for the better that some of the descriptions and comments of the 1845 report seem scarcely credible. No reasonable parent, teacher or child would wish to return for a minute to such primitive conditions." The gains made since those days are too many for even mention in so brief a review, but the authors are not satisfied with a complacent appraisal of the progress made. "The future calls for still more strenuous efforts, for greater advances." What the schools of tomorrow are likely to achieve in view of present tendencies is briefly sketched. The prophecy is a bright one, save for the expectation expressed quite sanguinely, that teachers of the future will be examined as to their social and civic orthodoxy before they are licensed to teach.

AGNES DE LIMA.

Education for Moral Growth

Education for Moral Growth, by Dr. Henry Neumann. New York: Appleton and Company. $2.00.

THIS book is a delight. "Moral growth" means for Dr. Neumann no prim, pedantic process of learning how to avoid the good things of life. The phrase glows for him with an eager possessive interest in the finest and most vigorously worth while things of life. Dr. Neumann's quarrel is with the really joyless, uninspired, uncreative, directionless education of the common

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schools. He sees the splendid resources of our civilization—in science, history, literature, heroic life—unutilized in our typical educational system, unutilized for the simple reason that the mechanical drill-shops which we call schools are inspired with no sense of the thrilling values in life. It is these values which he would have realized. Life, apparently, is not simply for the sake of carrying on some dull job or other; not even for the sake of making a brilliant success—at the cost of other people. Life is at least an adventure in high exploration. It is a finding, or an attempt to find, what is really worth while.

What is "really worth while?" Ask a school teacher that question. If she does not give the banal answer "happiness," "success," she will doubtless shrug her shoulders and say: "That question is not included in the curriculum." When the day's work is done; and the children have been taught that Magellan circumnavigated the globe, the teacher may properly feel that, the educationally expected having been accomplished, she has earned a night's repose. Or if the teacher is for a moment arrested by the question, she may answer, with a bit of asperity: "That kind of thing belongs in the Sunday School." But does it? Apart from the point that the Sunday School mixes the whole matter up with more or less antiquated taboos, is the shoving of the "values" out of education not to the very detriment of education itself? What is an educated person, if not one who knows fairly well what this business of living is about—what its high points are, its possible visions, its ideals? Otherwise is education not in danger of becoming the handmaid of the crassest philistinism?

There may be an honest difference of opinion upon the value which Dr. Neumann attaches to "direct moral instruction;" but there can hardly be anything but assent to the happy manner in which he shows how literature, history, science, civics, geography, foreign languages, etc., can be utilized so as to elicit from them, in most interesting ways, the ideal values which they contain. Educators are rapidly coming to the view that there has been too much teaching of facts simply as facts and not enough training of the mental power to grasp the causal interrelation of facts. Dr. Neumann goes one step farther and shows how necessary it is that students learn to find also the value-implications of facts. Thus the study of history is to be not simply a study of social forces as over against the older study of kings and battles; it is also to be a study of the human ideals that men have been struggling to realize throughout the historic process. So a study of literature is not to be simply a chronicling of literary masterpieces or even a development of "tastes," but is to lead to a recognition of the efforts of noble minds to express the puzzlements and the high visions of humanity. For the teacher who has sensed this need, and who has not quite known how, in specific detail, to utilize subject matters to this end, Dr. Neumann's book is of peculiar value, for the reason that it is not simply an argument in abstracto, but a concrete analysis of teaching material with quite specific suggestions as to procedure.

There may also be a difference of opinion upon Dr. Neumann's formulation of the moral ideal. To some it will savor of too ultimate, too absolutistic a conception of human life. Pragmatists will arise and have their quarrel with him, even after he has, in a skillful chapter, proceeded to lay them low. But the quarrel will not be acrimonious, because Dr. Neumann is so eminently fair. He has a persistent habit of digging out all the good that is to be said even for the worst of things. Thus severe as he is with the Puritan strain in our inheritance, he says as fine things about Puritanism as even the proudest offspring of the Pilgrim Fathers could say. Severe as he is with the shortcomings of science-teaching, his estimate of the value of science is as generous as even the most fanatical scientist could wish. The book, in short, is an exemplification of that quality which is so very rare in books that aim to make a point: it is as broad as it is in earnest; as eager to give the opposed views their due as it is to carry itself to victory. Incidentally, the reader will find on nearly every page illuminating quotations that lift the book quite out of the commonplace of pedagogic treatises. Dr. Neumann has a real gift for the happy phrase and for the apt illustration.

Nearly every one of us who is a parent will agree that what we wish the schools to do with our sons and daughters is not simply to make adding machines out of them, or animated world maps, or faithful literary anthologies. We rather wish that the schools might develop in them something of the fine stuff of character. It is precisely when our wishes run along this line that we shake our heads sadly and turn with a kind of wistful hope to the Boy Scouts or the Campfire Girls or to some other such "character building" organization. Education, however, which takes itself seriously will not forever be content to admit that it trains only the head and makes no pretense of training the whole personality. If that is all that is to come of the multitude of researches that are being made in the field of child study and educational technique, we may well wonder what all the pother is about. There is every indication, however, that educational technique, doubtless in response to our general dissatisfaction, is slowly being shaped to the larger ends of character development. Into this movement Dr. Neumann's book comes with a singular power—the power of clarity, of concreteness and of gracious reasonableness. It is a work for parents as well as for teachers; for all those, indeed, who have a wish that life may be made a bit less dull and uninspired, that our children at least, if not ourselves, may be developed into creatures a little more responsive to what the Greeks loved to speak of as their holy trinity of the Good, the Beautiful and the True.

H. A. OVERSTREET.

Three Problem Children

Three Problem Children. Narratives from the Case Records of a Child Guidance Clinic. Published by the Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquence. New York: $1.00.

THIS modest looking and unsigned volume of less than 150 pages, directed by Dr. Bernard Glueck and Dr. Marion Kenworthy, in collaboration with a staff of social workers, and skilfully organized and written by Miss Mary Buell Sayles, is altogether the best instrument yet presented for realizing practically the saying of Edith Abbott: "The school teachers of the United States, if they can be socialized, can accomplish more to prevent delinquency than all the social workers together."

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The studies taken separately are not superior perhaps to some cases presented by Jessie Taft and Miriam van Waters, and not so important (because not so numerous) when taken as guides to social workers as the twenty cases edited by Healy and Bronner, but we have here the impression that experts in the correction of the behavior difficulties of children have formulated their results not in the interest of their own profession but in order to present them to teachers and parents, not in malice but as a gift.

There is in the study no neglect of any available standpoint of method—constitutional inferiority, psychoanalysis, mental testing—and no partisanship (it is agreeable to note that the dream is not mentioned and there is no eagerness to introduce sex as a determining factor) comes to the front as the main element in all these troubles.

Of the three problem children one is a girl and two are boys. Mildred inherited syphilis, and her father was a hard drinker. The girl seemed feeble-minded, but up to the time of going to school she had been a bright, sunny, normal child, and the investigation disclosed that for some obscure reason she had never learned to read. Coming from a church school to the public schools at the age of eleven she concealed this defect by repeating from memory what the other children read. But in the midst of children half her size and age, passed by in school and taunted by her younger sister, she withdrew from reality, became sullen and uncommunicative, and it was feared that her mind was going. The Bureau of Children's Guidance was completely successful in this case, restoring the child to normality and making her in fact unusually efficient, alert, communicative and happy. The case shows the far-going importance of habit formation, and so far as ancestral taint is involved excites the suspicion that the bad heredity of the bad becomes so noticeable partly because we make no research into the bad heredity of the good.

As to the two boys, one case involving truancy was quickly cleared up under the guidance of the clinic, but the other was more baffling and up to the present has not been successfully adjusted. The subject, Kenneth, represents apparently the struggle of a type of individual against a type of society. The society, represented by the school, is "conditioned" by scholastic tradition, by books, to the transfer of learning through the printed page. The boy, on the other hand—Irish, red-headed and freckled, a fighter, a humorist in school, devoted to his mother, left-handed, mechanically gifted, a nuisance and a truant—is of the immediate, motor, direct-learning type. Now, Professor Morrison, who contributes a valuable chapter discussing the cases, points out that so far as can be determined by school tests, a distinct majority of all who go to school are, like Kenneth, of the direct-learning type as opposed to the lesson-transfer type on which the school organization is based. And indeed of the latter, as shown by a recent test in a group of city high schools, only about ten to fifteen percent were true or efficient lesson-transferrers. "The others were sheer lesson-learners or vague approximate learners of the passing grade type who make up the bulk of our high school and college graduates. The Kenneth type usually gets eliminated before reaching high school. They appear later either as successes in life and lasting reproaches to education, or as criminals or semi-criminals . . . "

In this connection, at any rate, there arose a fight between the school and the small boy. Genuinely left-handed, he was forced to use the other hand in writing, thus interfering with his whole language-arts machinery. He was demoted, not for inability but as a matter of discipline, and the attitude of his teachers assumed a complexion of enmity. In addition "a certain psychiatric clinic" had pronounced the boy a "moral imbecile," but the school was not responsible for this; it came about through the friendly interest of a society of Big Brothers. In the meantime Kenneth had retreated into truancy and lying, but as the same time he undertook to organize his own life on the basis of business enterprise. This venture took the form of a newspaper route, and "the boy's entire personality appeared to be called into play by this work as it had never been in school, and his pride and pleasure in the new undertaking were engagingly evident." At present he is successful in business but incorrigible in school.

It has often been remarked that great inventors and other direct-learners were stupid in school. This means that they were otherwise interested as direct-learners, or their natural learning tendencies were for the time inhibited. The chemist Ostwald has pointed out in his interesting book, Grosse Männer, that the precocity of such men as Leibnitz and Sir Wiliam Thomson would have done them no good if the schools in their time had been "better," that is to say, had lasted longer and been more difficult to escape. Perhaps Kenneth will not become a great man because the schools are "better" in his time.

These cases, when read in full, bring out the meaning of the blunt statement of some psychiatrists that "the schools make feeble-minded children," and justify the attitude of some superintendents of homes for delinquent children in disregarding the diagnosis of "feeble-minded" and proceeding to recondition the child by the direct-learning methods. Mrs. Morse, noted for her success in re-educating Juvenile Court children, admits, I believe, that from three to five percent of her charges may be constitutionally inferior, but I am not sure that I do not do her an injustice and place even these figures too high.

It would not be true to say that these studies are entirely satisfactory. They are so least of all probably to those who are responsible for them. Too little, after all, was learned of the lives of the subjects, of their earliest conditionings, and too little is known in general of the laws of habit formation. Perhaps the greatest lack in these studies, as in those of Healy and Bronner, is the failure to obtain in all cases and in as great detail as possible the child's own story of his life. This feature should be given not less importance and space than the observations of the psychiatrist and social worker. Nevertheless the importance of this piece of work can hardly be overstated and it is sure to have enormous influence if widely circulated among teachers and parents.

W. I. Thomas.

The Social Personality

Personality and Social Adjustment, by Ernest R. Groves. New York: Longmans, Green and Company. $1.40.

THE influence of the newer psychological points of view on the social sciences continues in evidence. In this book Professor Groves has shown the relation of the psychology of personality to the problems of social conduct in a manner which is both refreshing and in-

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formative. The standpoint is a modified behaviorism which admits certain of the important psycho-analytic concepts in the interpretation of human behavior. For the author the personality is to be understood in terms of social environment on the one hand and in terms of impulse on the other. The impulse covers both the activity or instinct and the desire or wish with the emotional tone attached. Habits which develop out of impulses by the method of conditioned reflex and the learning process possess these two features. As he writes, "It is often forgotten that habits contain both elements that we find in impulse: activity and feeling." This places habit for him, as for Professor Dewey, definitely into a dynamic category and offers thereby a principle for understanding the individual in his group life.

While the author is cognizant throughout of the play of habit in social life, his chief emphasis is upon the importance of the emotional features of the personality: anger, fear, love, gregarious impulses, and self-aggressiveness. He traces the changes in many of the traditional expressions of these emotions due to alterations in our social environment. He indicates that anger and fear play much less part than formerly, but that urbanization of population, growing out of the industrial revolution, has over-enhanced the significance of the crowd-forming tendencies. Man is becoming increasingly a creature of crowds, and education of a sane sort is the only thing that will protect us from the "mass thinking" which threatens to engulf us. In fact, the place of education is to act as a guide to the sublimation of our more primitive impulses toward social ends. In the growth of personality this consists in alteration of both the stimuli and the responses of the untrained individual. These changes in the person are integrated together and the author well points out that no complete picture of the individual can be given in terms of mere physical or mental measurement. Rather we must take into account the unified personality with its various facets: physical, emotional, instinctive, intellectual and moral. For instance his discussion of the place of inferiority complexes in delinquency and other anti-social action is pertinent in a day when we are still hearing too much of sub-normal intelligence as the cause of these mal-adjustments.

The book is written in a pleasing style with an excellent selection of cases from everyday life. It is a volume which will serve the parent, the high school teacher, the college student and the general reader as an introduction into the problems of personality and social conduct.

K. Y.

The Child in Panorama

The Child: His Nature and His Needs. Edited by M. V. O'Shea; published by the Children's Foundation. Valparaiso, Indiana. $1.00.

BOOKS on education and child psychology fall within one of three broad categories: scientific, pseudo-scientific and unscientific. Practically interpreted, they are useful, confusing, or harmful. From the reviewer's point of view the latter two types may be summarily dismissed. The problem presented by those rare volumes which combine technical proficiency with practical usefulness is far more difficult. The Child: His Nature and His Needs falls within this latter group. It is a volume which meets the demands of the time, presenting in its five hundred well-printed and profusely illustrated pages a panorama of authentic information regarding available knowledge of child life and regimen. Social workers, teachers, preachers and parents who are seeking a synthesis of vast accumulation of theoretical and applied child psychology will find their needs more adequately fulfilled in this volume than in any other now available.

The Children's Foundation has launched its career with the above volume as its initial appeal to the public. It could scarcely have chosen more wisely. Under Professor O'Shea's editorship and with the assistance of fifteen specialist collaborators, the foundation has ventured to select, edit, condense and present in readable form between the covers of a single volume comprehensive and well-grounded information on child life. One might easily discover gaps and unsatisfactory factors in an undertaking of such general character, but on the whole the task has been so well performed that minor criticisms would seem misplaced. Short biographical sketches of the various contributors, an exhaustive bibliography, and a refreshingly complete index increase the volume's usefulness. In addition the foundation has inaugurated a plan of distribution which makes it possible to secure the book at the nominal price of one dollar.

E. C. L.

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